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ABSTRACT

The humanistic ideas, models, and tools of educator Robert Fox are presented in eight chapters. Chapter I summarizes Fox's ideas toward clarifying values, projecting possible goals and plans toward humane education, the balance and linkage between intellectual, socio-emotional, and citizenship development, the individualization of curriculum, and assumptions about the humane school. Chapter II discusses Fox's concept of the humane classroom in terms of interpersonal relations, group processes, individualized instruction, and the teacher's role. Three classroom evaluation instruments for teachers and students are provided. Chapter III defines Fox's innovative approaches to curriculum development and evaluation as he sought to relate curriculum to new values, styles of life, and motivation of the young. Chapter IV presents methods of diagnosing the human dynamics of the school. Tools for assessing the building climate, classroom group, student-teacher relationship, and school-home orientation are provided. Chapter V explores Fox's ideas about administrator and teacher leadership and examines tools for educational leaders for planning, decisions, and actions. Chapter VI discusses Fox's methods for getting significant educational innovations identified, evaluated, and used by others. Chapter VII reviews Fox's concern for the continuing professional development of teachers and administrators. The final chapter presents thoughts from Fox's former students. A bibliography of his published works concludes the document. (Author/KC)

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SCHOOLS CAN BE MADE BETTER

The Ideas, Models, and Tools of Robert Fox

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PREFACE

We were both colleagues of Robert Fox.

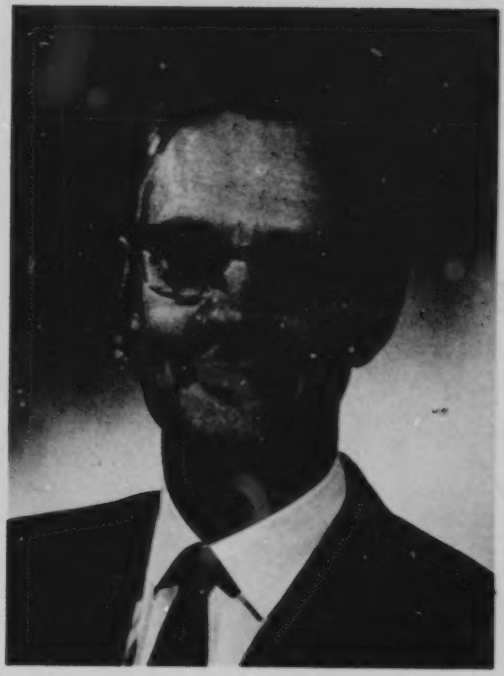
He died in mid-career, having already created and tested many significant ideas about ways to improve learning in the classrooms, the administration of educational programs, and the training of teachers and administrators.

He was a stimulating and influential teacher of many young and older educators.

Those of us who worked with Bob believe that many other educators should have the opportunity to be stimulated by his work. Also, selfishly, we need the diverse aspects of Bob's thinking and work pulled together for ourselves—so we can continue to make good use of his resources.

Accordingly, we have undertaken a review of Bob's work and the preparation of a selective resourcebook of ideas, values, models, and tools which Bob created. or helped create, and which we believe can help each of us to be a more effective educator—as teacher of the young, administrator, curriculum coordinator, inservice trainer, special educator, educational researcher, professor of education, concerned parent, or board member.

Ronald Lippitt
Patricia L. Johnson



THIS IS ROBERT FOX

whose life and works have been the stimulus and resource for this summary of concepts, values, methods, and tools, which we believe will be a help to you.

A Biographical Note

Robert S. Fox
1918–1974

Bob Fox, a humane man whose goal was to humanize public education for all involved, grew up in Denver, Colorado, and chose education as his profession at the start of his career. In 1939 he graduated from the University of Denver with an A.B. in economics and social studies education. One year later he obtained an M.A. in education and took a position as an elementary teacher in San Mateo, California.

In 1942, World War II interrupted his teaching and he entered the Army Air Corps, winning a commission as a second lieutenant. After the war Bob returned to education, combining work on an Ed.D. at Stanford with a position as Elementary Coordinator in the Office of the Superintendent of Schools in San Diego.

Awarded his doctoral degree from Stanford in 1950, Bob came to the University of Michigan as an assistant professor of education and principal of the University Elementary School. For the next twenty years he was directly involved with the University School, serving as principal of the Elementary School for five years (1950–1955) and as Director of the entire University School for fifteen years (1955–1970). His work with the laboratory school combined with his teaching and supervision of graduate students enabled him to view education from the points of view of both practitioner and curriculum theorist.

An active professional, Bob Fox was one of the leaders in the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development at both state and national levels. He was also active in National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, National Association of Elementary School Principals, and the Social Science Education Consortium, Inc. A prolific writer as evidenced by the excerpts from his writings in this volume, a skilled consultant, and a respected teacher, Bob Fox in his last years directed a study of Project Follow-Through for the U.S. Office of Education (1972), chaired a task force on the Principal as School Climate Leader for the Kettering Foundation (1972), and served as Director of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies / Social Science Education (1972–1974).

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INTRODUCTION

As you see from the Table of Contents, we have organized Bob Fox's contributions into seven areas. In each area we have selected several themes, related the gist of Bob's ideas in his own words from his publications, and included models, diagrams, and tools which can be used to convert his ideas into practice.

In Chapter 1 we summarize Bob's values, concepts, and goals about quality education. Many ideas will be familiar, some controversial. We believe they represent a sound basis for the type of humane education that must be actualized if we are to cope with our current uncertainties, frustrations, and hopes creatively and successfully.

In Chapter 2 we include some of Bob's most unique contributions to understanding the group dynamics of the classroom as they relate to motivation, to learning, to individualization, and to roles.

In Chapter 3 we show that Bob was defining some new areas of curriculum and creating innovative approaches to curriculum development and evaluation. He sought to relate the curriculum more effectively to the new values, styles of life, and motivations of the young and to the new images of our emergent society.

In Chapter 4 we present ways to diagnose the human dynamics of the school. Bob Fox developed tools for assessing building climate, the classroom group, the teacher-student relationship, and school-home interaction. He also created important designs and tools for accountability assessment.

In Chapter 5 we explore Bob's developing ideas about leadership as applied to the roles of administrator and teacher and examine some tools for educational leaders to use in guiding their planning, decisions, and actions.

In Chapter 6 we pursue with Bob his frustrations and discoveries of how to get significant educational innovations identified, evaluated, spread, and used by others so that there doesn't have to be a 30-year lag between invention and common practice.

In Chapter 7 we review one of Bob's major concerns—the continuing professional development of teachers and administrators. He was unusually effective in involving professionals in improving their skills and revising their values. He could create openness and readiness to change where others encountered resistance, caution, and avoidance.

In Chapter 8, the final chapter, we share thoughts from several of Bob's former students as they assess the impact on their own lives and educational practices of Bob Fox as teacher and model. As co-author editors we also share our summary of the dimensions of Bob's contributions.

We include a bibliography to answer questions you may have about what Bob produced as a legacy of published writings.

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I

Humane Education: Goals, Purposes, Values, Designs, and Balance

Bob Fox had, throughout his professional life, a concern for the quality of the educational experience of learners, the quality of the relationship between learners and teachers, and the quality of the resource environment which supported the learning process for youngers and olders, from preschool to doctoral students. In this chapter we have identified five themes from Bob's writing about humane education, selected illustrative quotations, and provided tools for actively doing something with the themes. These are tools which Bob helped to create. The chapter concludes with Bob's summary of some of the characteristics of a humane school in operation. Later chapters go into greater detail about some of these characteristics and about ways of achieving them.

Theme No. 1: *Identifying and Clarifying Values*

Bob Fox was not primarily a philosopher of education but he had a deep concern about the process by which values for education are formulated and the degree to which they actually serve as functional guidelines for educational practice.

His value orientation about the humane school can be found in a statement which he co-authored as part of a task force for the Detroit Board of Education:

Creating a Humane School

> A humane school offers many benefits. Even though schools exist primarily to improve academic skills, all youths will not be successful. As youths learn more about themselves and other people, in their constant search for values, they will develop a pride for diversity. They will learn the meaning of right, of respect, of dignity, of freedom and responsibility. They may succeed in the academic skills, or they may discover their niche in music, drama and art. . . . A humane community inevitably means more humane citizens.

> A high priority in elementary education should be the development of a sensitive, thinking, loving, and humane child. Teachers and administrators cannot accomplish this unless they are sensitive, thinking, loving, and humane adults.
>
> We do not mean to downgrade subject matter, but to learn to feel good about oneself is at least of equal importance. Being humane is a skill, it has to be learned through practice and interaction with other people. (1971c, pp. 20-21)

We see here the emphasis on achieving a balance between learning competence and learning humaneness. We see Bob's recognition that affective and social skills must be learned by skill practice just as the other areas of study.

He identifies the problems of complexity and pluralism in developing value orientations for education as he writes:

> Statements of purpose are probably noted more commonly in the educational enterprise than in relation to any other activity of our society. The reasons for this are to be found, undoubtedly, in the complexity of the school's task and in the need for coordinating the involvement of large numbers of people in the educational process. Schools must have guidelines for their operation that are understood and supported by teachers, parents, pupils, politicians, business leaders, labor leaders, in short, by all major elements of the society, if they are to operate effectively.
>
> Participation by such numbers and varieties of people in the process of establishing purposes can be expected to create some confusion. Wide varieties of purposes and objectives are continually being posed. Such proposals are phrased as broad generalities and sharply focused specifics; they deal with ends and with means; they are directed toward the entire educational enterprise and towards specific schools or groups within schools. Our concern with balance is indeed appropriate as we consider the problem of describing the major functions or areas of responsibility of the schools. . . .
>
> Some persons would say that purposes should be stated only in general terms. The proper function of purposes, they would hold, is to set a broad framework against which more specific goal decisions relating to curriculum, instructional methods and classroom procedures can be made. A great source of confusion relating to purposes in education lies precisely at this point. General statements can be interpreted by each person as he sees fit. For example, the statement, "The purpose of the schools is the intellectual development of the child," can easily be interpreted in two different ways. The person whose values cause him to lean toward establishing an intellectual elite will agree with the statement. So will the individual who would direct the school's role toward the end of effective

citizenship. Unless the underlying values for the ultimate application of the stated purpose are made clear, the statement has not served its function of setting a direction for the educational process. . . .

It is clear that a variety of value orientations may underlie the different positions for intellectual development or citizen education as purposes of American schools. A serious effort to seek balance among such positions would require that these orientations be specified and studied. (1961, pp. 49, 50, and 60)

At the end of this statement Bob summarizes again his orientation to the challenge of balance and the validity of pluralism when he says:

The basic proposition (which I have presented) is that no "correct" solution may be described by any group of experts. The appropriate decision will be dependent in large measure upon the *values* held by the individuals or groups concerned and to some extent upon the *principles of learning* accepted by them. Careful examination of *research evidence* and *description of practice* will serve to clarify what is meant by various statements of purpose and therefore assist in arriving at a more intelligent conclusion . . .

If conflicts or misunderstandings with regard to the defining of purposes for public education are to be avoided, certain steps must be taken. It is clear that judgments based on partial or inaccurate information, and/or unspecified values, or on values which are not acceptable to the community, will need to be replaced by judgments which are the product of a logical discussion and study. Clarification of underlying values, identification of research evidence, and description of practice are essential to such a process. (1961)

In another publication about a year later Bob describes what he means by the process of making values operational:

This complexity of value orientations in respect to a particular objective that seems to be commonly accepted points to a need for examining the process through which objectives and curriculum are identified and decided upon. Four suggestions follow:

1. Recognize the need for looking beyond the simple statements of purpose presented by those who propose curriculum modifications. The statements appearing in curriculum handbooks, in descriptions of new course plans, and in proposals for use of program learning materials, are undoubtedly sincere, but seldom reflect clearly the underlying values held by the proposer.
2. Give careful attention to specifying objectives and their underlying values as an essential part of the curriculum-improvement process. More is involved than merely getting statements down on paper.

Group discussion, face-to-face interaction in a setting conducive to frank expressions of ideas, may be essential.

3. Test your understanding of the proposed objectives by exploring some of the means-ends relationships. Work through the implications of the proposal in terms of learning principles, social philosophy, and relationships to the disciplines of organized fields of knowledge. Explore the meaning of the objectives when translated into curriculum content or instructional materials. What kinds of teaching methods are implied? Such an exploration may serve to clarify the true objectives.
4. Provide opportunities for interaction among the various individuals and groups concerned about the curriculum so that they may explore problems of values; achieve understanding of the various positions held; and, to the extent required by the nature of the program being considered, arrive at some consensus or decision.

This kind of interaction has been described as a political process. Essentially, this is what it must be, for differences in values frequently may not be resolved by compromise or by seeking additional facts. Such differences reflect the basic postures of individuals or groups toward life or the world as they see it. Wiser curriculum decisions will be made if individuals are provided opportunities for intelligent examination of values and exploration of their implications for the classroom. (October 1962a)

This is a good sample of Bob's concerns about the issue of value formulation, clarification, and utilization in the practice of education. Essentially he was saying that we must recognize that our educational activities are multipurposed, so we must be concerned about creative balance. He was saying that we must accept the pluralism of legitimate interests in the formulation of values for education, and that we need to see this pluralism as potentially a rich resource. In addition, he was saying that value clarification also involves testing of assumptions and consequences against findings from relevant research and experience.

Theme No. 2: *Projecting Possible Goals and Plans Toward Humane Education*

Bob was truly a combination of democrat, humanist, and strategist in his great emphasis on the process of setting goals and on the linking of goals to plans for action.

He co-authored a memo for a client school system which pointed out that any particular educational goal may come from, and be influenced by, several sources:

1. It may come from policy decisions passed down from higher levels of leadership such as the school board, the state department, and the superintendent's cabinet.

2. Or it may come from a review of the discrepancies between previous goal commitments, what has been accomplished, and what still remains to be done to achieve the commitments.
3. Or the goals may come from feedback or discontent or need or wish from the consumers (that is, the students).
4. Or the goals may come from external vested interests, such as parents' organizations and teachers' professional organizations.
5. Or a goal may come from studying current trends and deriving implications of what is suggested or needed to adapt to those trends.
6. Or a goal may come from projecting ahead in time an image of what would be a desirable outcome in terms of the values and hopes of the planners.

All of these, the memo pointed out, are relevant and appropriate influences on the formulation of specific goals.

This memo indicates the practical derivation Bob made from his philosophical commitment to democratic involvement of whoever would be affected and his strategic awareness of the realities of any particular goal-setting and implementation process.

Bob was also concerned that much of goal setting in education is pedestrian, nonmotivating, and limited in perspective. This is one of the reasons that motivated him to co-author *Toward A Humane Society*, in which he states, with his co-authors:

> To a large degree the humanization of our lives and our life situation is beyond our individual powers to achieve. It requires collective efforts, guided by professional competence, to change old systems of relationships and to create new ones. The dilemma of dehumanization through organizational growth, urbanization, and the development of mass society, is that many of the big jobs that need to be done in society require large organizations and mass efforts. To introduce processes of humanization and more humane goals and values into the policies and procedures of these systems is one of our great challenges.
>
> So much of what we do every day is in response to pain, of coping with problems which press upon us until we are required to find a solution, to "work them through." This type of response is becoming typical of many of us as our world becomes more complex and more confronting. At the same time most of us recognize, either consciously or unconsciously, that if we are to cope with today more creatively and effectively, we will need clearer notions about where we want to go. We feel the need to be working toward clear goals rather than simply avoiding pain or merely managing the here-and-now confrontations. We need the time, the stimulation,

and the guidelines for thinking ahead, for being psychologically prepared and for taking the initiative rather than primarily reacting to our environment. . . .

Just coping reactively under the stress of the immediate situation is not likely to stimulate much strategic thinking about change. The motivations and perspectives generated by "getting away from pain" are not likely to contain the creativity or to generate the energy that derives from aspirations associated with a series of concrete, feasible steps toward desirable goals. Images of potentiality are not only strong initial sources of direction and motivation, but they also provide the basis for continual feedback, motivation, and renewal.

Clear images provide the impetus for experimentation and the readiness and support to risk new techniques and directions. For example, the motivation and willingness to experiment with using older children as assistants in drug abuse and sex education programs for younger ones derived from both a clear understanding of the ways in which social influence takes place and some clear ideas about what would be desirable if such an older-younger relationship could work out.

If and when these possibilities are projected in a concrete way they can provide guiding models and principles for action, beginning now. The excitement and rationality of taking initiative toward the future must replace the anxiety associated with reactive coping with confrontation. (1973e, ch. 1)

This orientation toward making goal setting an exciting "image of potentiality" activity led Bod and his two co-workers to develop a number of goal-setting and planning models and tools which are described in Chapter 6 of *Toward a Humane Society*.

For example:
A one-day educational community planning conference is being held with the help of the consultants. An ad hoc planning committee representing the school board, administration, faculty, the students, parents and community professionals with youth serving responsibilities has helped plan the day and carried through the invitation process, insuring that "key influentials" from the students and parents have been invited along with all the teachers, administrators, board members and a group of key community leaders who have concerns and responsibilities for the welfare and growth and education of the young.

The meeting of about 300 is being held in the high school cafeteria, where everybody has received name tags with table numbers to insure that each

table group of 8 to 10 has a cross representation of all the roles at the conference.

After a brief "science fiction" warmup period in which each table lists all the imaginative ideas they can think of about what a school might be like in the year 2000, they shout out some of their favorite ideas to help legitimize a spirit of freed-upness and imagination.

Then with a piece of newsprint on each table the participants are helped, by very careful instructions, to go ahead a year in time and to observe, in the here-and-now of one year from today, things they can see going on in classrooms, and interactions between teachers, and between teachers and administrators, between parents and the school, and between the school and other community agencies, that make them pleased with the improvements in the educational program of the school and the community. Each table becomes very involved in listing its images, and helping others clarify their ideas.

These big sheets are then put up on the wall and there is a reading and priority checking period in which participants review as many of the 25 sheets as they want to, each casting six votes (by checking on the sheets) on what they find most exciting or important and would like to see worked toward and achieved.

By the time people are through reading and checking and having coffee, tea or coke, the Steering Committee members have skimmed the sheets to see where the frequently checked items are, and from these they decide on about fifteen priorities for work by temporary task forces for the next phase of the day. They write these up on the overhead projector and assign table numbers as meeting places. Everybody goes to the task force of their first choice.

The consultants then lead the task forces through a series of steps of clarifying their goal statements, and then doing a diagnostic "force field" of the resources and supports and restraints and barriers to moving toward that particular goal. This leads to a feasibility analysis and a brainstorm about possible first steps of action, what and by whom, to help move toward the goal if it is accepted as one of the goal priorities. These recommendations for goal priorities and steps of action are written by each task force on a ditto master which is produced immediately over at the side of the room.

New groupings are then formed with parents together, students together, teachers together, administrators together, board members together, and community leaders together. In these groupings they review and discuss the recommendations of the task forces—reviewing feasibility, the possibilities

of participation by themselves if the goal were to be activated, and recommendations to the school board for priorities for them to consider in their leadership role.

The School Board heard the presentation of these ideas, indicated an openness to immediate action on several of them, indicated a need for further study on some, and requested task forces to continue their involvement and work on most of them. By four o'clock the high pitch of involvement had been converted into commitment to participation in next steps of action, the identification of continuing task forces with convenors and meeting times and meeting places.

In all groups throughout the day there was a continuous dialogue between representatives from different parts of the educational community, much discovering of important resources in the ideas from "the others," much unexpected discovering of congruent values, and much clarification of the bases of divergent values. A genuine educational community was being formed through this process of goal setting and feasibility and action planning. (1973b, summarized from pp. 71-96)

This illustration provides a concrete example of Bob's commitment to integrate "mind stretching for everyone" with disciplined procedures for development, planning, and continuing involvement of all those who would be affected by the decisions and actions which would follow from any particular planning process. (Illustrative tools for this goal-setting and planning process can be found in the tool kit at the end of the chapter.)

Theme No. 3: *The Balance and Linkage Between Intellectual, Socio-Emotional, and Citizenship Development*

Bob Fox was always concerned about what he felt was the unnecessary and inappropriate polarization between those parts of the educational community who stressed intellectual development and academic achievement, those who stressed personal mental health and social relations development, and those who stressed preparation for occupation and citizenship.

Bob supervised a number of studies aimed at exploring the relationships between socio-emotional development and intellectual development. He felt he was reporting an important breakthrough when he wrote:

Several of the positions taken toward the purpose of intellectual development differ at the point of the balance between socio-emotional development and academic learning. Research efforts to describe this relationship are of fairly recent origin . . .

Van Egmond, in a study concerned with the relationship between level of utilization of intellectual ability and socio-emotional acceptance by

> peers, predicted that those pupils who are influential and accepted in their peer relationships, would utilize their intellectual ability to a greater degree than those who were not as influential or as well accepted in the peer society. Data from a group of 353 second graders and 287 fifth graders lend clear cut support to this hypothesis. The relationship is particularly strong at the higher levels of intelligence and among the older children. A higher level of social power is more often associated with the fuller utilization of intellectual abilty among boys than among girls, while girls who are high in their affective relationships are most frequently higher in their utilization of intelligence. (1961, p. 55)

These findings of Van Egmond were confirmed by Schmuck and others, who found that in all classroom levels those students who perceived themselves as liked or listened to by their peers tended to be more involved in their class group, more positive about their feelings about school, and more fully utilizing their intellectual abilities in academic learning.

In formulating what he perceived as some of the implications of this, Bob wrote in a report to the Office of Education:

> If, as these findings indicate, successful human relations are important for academic achievement, the teacher should try to enhance every pupil's ability to obtain emotional support from his peers by actively attempting to alter peer group sociometric arrangements. He should attempt to do this not only because good human relations is a value in itself, but also because it contributes importantly to the school's academic goals. (January 1964, p. 107)

In an earlier publication Bob explored the relationship between classroom learning and the development of citizenship attitudes and skills. In 1957 he wrote:

> Educators today believe that good learning experiences utilize and grow from the child's own environment. Even though the child from the small or rural community may need to prepare to make his way in urban society, there is excellent reason for him to make maximum use of his small community experiences. Especial interest in the problems he faces in his daily living are the necessary vehicles for learning the facts, attitudes, and techniques he will need in order to solve more complex problems later.
>
> A child enthusiastic about improving his living in his rural community will be a valued citizen of any community in which he may later move.
>
> We realize that education is more effective when directed toward the improvement of living and the exercising of citizenship. Whenever teachers can facilitate focusing on classroom problems which are real and important

to the children, and which are also considered important by the adults around them, learning opportunities are maximized, for it makes good sense to the learners to tackle problems that are real and immediate . . . they are problems of "being somebody," of living along with people, of understanding what makes things "tick." Each child wants to know how what he does affects what someone else does and wants to find out what he is capable of doing. (January 1957, pp. 17–18)

Whenever Bob talked about classroom learning he usually was also talking about "transfer of learning," "application to one's life setting," "linkage between learning and doing." These themes will come up again and again as we explore his concepts of the effective classroom, effective school leadership, and effective inservice training.

Theme No. 4: *The Individualization of Curriculum and Learning Opportunities*

Throughout his professional career Bob focused on the growth and learning of the individual child and youth, and also on the individual classroom teacher. A great deal of his early research interest was in child development, exploring individual differences in growth rates and growth patterns. Here is a selection which expresses this focal interest:

> The learner in our schools faces a series of escarpments created by us as we have sought to meet problems of school organization. . . . Sharp breaks in the learning continuum created by grade divisions and school levels are regarded as inconsistent with our knowledge of child growth and development. We recognize the continuity of growth and we also accept and expect wide variations in growth rates and patterns between individuals in the same chronological age group. No longer can the teacher plan to meet the needs of only those children who happen to conform to the artificially derived "average." The sixth-grade teacher knows there will be children in his class who will be nearly as mature as adults in their reading development and others who will be progressing quite normally through the primary stages of reading. The junior high teacher expects an even greater variation, since additional years of growth increase the disparity in achievement between the slow growers and the rapid growers. These teachers, regardless of their particular grade or school level, are facing common problems in guiding child growth and learning in accordance with individual needs, readinesses, and attainments. (February 1952, p. 2)

By 1964 Bob's interest in individual differences had shifted to individual patterns of social and emotional development and to the ways in which these interacted with intellectual development and achievement. Writing a first chapter of a research report to the Office of Education he notes:

Against this general backdrop of the class as a group, move individual children, each a composite of abilities and attributes, reacting and interacting with other pupils and with the teacher. What can be learned about pupils like Jerry and Karen and Martha, who so obviously are operating at a low level of intellectual effectiveness in the classroom, that will help them to improve? Can their individual states of mental health and socio-emotional development, as well as their academic achievements, be improved? . . .

Jerry is by far the lowest in the amount of social influence attributed to him by his peers. He is also the least liked in the class. With regard to expertness, his classmates placed him in a category by himself, so extremely low as to indicate no expertness at all. Yet his scores on the reading test indicate a reading grade of 1.86 with five of his classmates scoring lower than he. Actual observation of Jerry's behavior in the classroom, and reports by the teacher, show him to be impulsive, often using physical force in his attempts to influence others.

Jerry seldom initiates any friendly behavior (although you will recall he was the one described earlier who tried to bribe a playmate at recess time with offer of some candy). His influence attempts are seldom successful. The other children find themselves interacting with him negatively. Their manner is usually one of ordering or telling him to do something. He receives no friendly approaches from others.

Jerry is quite unrealistic in his conceptions of himself, giving himself the highest ratings on how others saw him in terms of expertness and liking, although he ranked at the bottom of the class on both.

In general, Jerry is a low power, aggressive, unfriendly boy. He exemplifies dramatically the interrelationship among a number of social variables, seemingly having some effect on the others. Whether or not his low academic resources affect his low status with his peers, or vice versa, is a question which can and will be explored in the research described in this report. Of particular interest is the possibility of helping Jerry improve his social-emotional position in the classroom group and with himself. The school traditionally gives attention to the academic problems and individual differences of pupils like Jerry. It is just as crucial, or perhaps even more so, to plan for helping with some change in Jerry's social status and interpersonal behavior pattern, and self-esteem, as these will be valuable not only in raising Jerry's mental health, but have a positive influence on his utilization of his intellectual capacities. (January 1964, pp. 19-20)

As he became more and more aware of the intimate interplay between the factors of intellectual and physical development and those of socio-emotional development, Bob became more and more absorbed with the conditions of class-

room and school climate which would be facilitative of optimal interaction among all these aspects of child growth and learning. In the final section of this chapter we summarize Bob Fox's conception of the dimensions of a humane school, as he developed them with several colleagues.

Theme No. 5: *Assumptions About the Humane School*

Bob spent many work sessions with a team of colleagues developing a case study of what the *humane school* would look like in operation. This excerpt is from the introduction to the case study of "What Could Be."

> A good deal of the attention given to the human relations aspect of the school has been incidental, informal, and without focus. The intellectual, cognitive objectives of the school have been given major attention and support.
>
> What would happen if this school were to see itself as a laboratory for living and learning in which the best that is known about human interaction were utilized? What ways would it be different from the schools we now work in? How would it be organized? What would its priorities be? Could human relationships themselves be a focus for inquiry?
>
> The model for a humanizing school outlined on the following pages is an attempt to answer some of these questions. It is not presented as "an impossible dream" but as a set of practical and feasible options which may give form to the desire for a setting in a program within which learning and growth are maximized for all participants.
>
> Our conception of a humanizing school is based on several underlying assumptions from which we have derived our goals for the program and our design strategy. Here are the assumptions:
>
> 1. The socio-emotional environment of the school in which the child spends such a large segment of his early life has a major impact on his mental health and basic style of human relations.
> 2. Much of the growing alienation of children and youth from education stems from pressures to engage in substantive learning activities for which there is little basis for commitment or sense of relevance.
> 3. The motivation to learn derives from the challenge of meaningful problem-solving or inquiry activities that combine elements of intellectual search, effective involvement and commitment, skill practice, and action.
> 4. The major support for learning comes from the norms of a peer group in which one has status and acceptance and from positive identification with respected adults who act as resources and guides for learning activities.

5. With the rate of expansion and change of knowledge, the challenging priority is to help young learners acquire the skills of learning, the sense of self-potency to initiate problem-solving efforts, the interpersonal skills to give and receive help in learning, and the ability to evaluate their efforts objectively in relation to articulated learning goals.
6. Knowledge of developmental growth sequences is very important if the school is to provide appropriate opportunities for human relations learning relative to responsibility taking and decision making maturity, self-education initiative, impulse control balance and the like.
7. According to the available evidence, as human relations improve, the efficiency of intellectual activities improves, as manifested in:
   a. More availability and use of personal resources for the learning effort
   b. More freedom to use the resources of others
   c. More individualization of learning patterns
   d. More motivation to learn
   e. More trust of student initiative by teachers, parents and others.
8. The tasks of "academic learning" and "human relations learning" are interdependent processes. Achieving the ability to diagnose interpersonal processes in the work situation is an important aspect of achieving optimal learning conditions.
9. A great challenge is to shape the new resources of educational technology along with the use of time and space, to facilitate and support creative and productive human relations.
10. Many organizations and groups in the community, in addition to the school, have educational objectives and programs. Collaboration with these other educational and socialization influences is crucial if the child's total learning potential and opportunities are to be mobilized.

These assumptions lead to the identification of seven goal areas. We have identified these areas as follows:

1. Program development and operation: to achieve involvement and cooperation of the major segments of a) the educative community and b) the socializing community, in the development and operation of the school program.
2. Training for participants: to institute and maintain continuing inservice education programs for all personnel involved in the educational activities . . . professionals, paraprofessionals, and volunteers, including a major program of parent involvement and training.

3. The utilization of human resources: to recruit, develop and utilize the great variety of professional and volunteer human resources needed to provide all students with maximum stimulation and opportunities to learn.
4. Creation of a supportive ecology: to mobilize and utilize creatively resources of technology, time and space, in such ways as to foster human relations values and goals.
5. Maintenance of open and supportive communication: to develop and maintain an open and supportive communication system horizontally (among peers) and vertically (among students, older students, teachers, administrators) within the school building.
6. Implementation of a curriculum in human relations: to prepare and implement a curriculum in human relations knowledge, values and skills so that the students profit from the best in behavioral science research.
7. Continued program evaluation and revision: to achieve community wide involvement in procedures for continuous evaluation and review of the educational program, and for utilization of these data for continuing program revision. (1973e, pp. 25-42)

Many of the ideas summarized in later chapters of this volume illustrate the ways in which Bob Fox worked toward actualizing in practice these objectives for creating humane classrooms, school buildings, and school systems.

A Tool for Identifying and Clarifying Values

One of the techniques for value inquiry which Bob and his colleagues developed and found very useful in many groups—teachers, administrators, students, parents, and mixed groups—has the following steps:

Step 1: Each participant is given five to ten 3x5 cards. A typical instruction goes like this: "This is a chance to communicate to your colleagues your most important beliefs or values about the content and procedures of education. You can write one belief on each card, being as clear and concrete as possible about each value or belief."

Step 2: "Now read through your cards and order them with the most important beliefs first; then next important, and so forth. This means selecting the one that has the deepest value or importance for you, then next, and so on. After you have arranged them in order number them 1, 2, 3, and so on."

Step 3: "Look the cards over and decide which card states the value which you use most frequently in making decisions and guiding your behavior. Please mark it 'F' (frequently)."

Step 4: "Now look at the cards again and decide which value you have the hardest time being consistent about, or that you catch yourself violating most frequently. Of course we are not 100 percent consistent about any of our values, but which one gives you the most difficulty? Mark it 'H' (hard)."

Step 5: "Now get together with three other participants and share your data, exploring the following questions:

1. What are interesting similarities and differences in your ordering of priorities?
2. What reasons do each of you have for your top priority?
3. Which are the values you each find hardest to live up to? Why? What are the situations and issues that make for difficulties?
4. What challenges to your values and needs for further thinking did you discover from your dialog?"

Step 6: "Report out your discoveries from each group in regard to these questions."

Step 7: "Do a brainstorm together on 'What might we do differently, as content of curriculum or procedures of educating, if we actualized our priority values more fully?'"

A Tool for Projecting Goals and Planning for Action

The most common way to set goals is to list the problems one wants to do something about and then to decide the priority of the problems.

An analysis of this approach has identified several interesting facts that led to the development of the *imaging process* (1973e):

1. When a group is listing its problems, the voices become more and more depressed.
2. More and more comments indicate a sense of impotence or futility about action taking and problem solving.
3. There are more and more comments that attribute the causes of problems to "outside forces we can't do anything about."
4. In many groups which set goals and priorities after such a "problem census," goal selections become oriented toward "getting away from pain (problems)" rather than "going toward some positive image of desired achievement."

The *imaging process* has been created as a result of this analysis. It is a future-oriented approach to selecting action goals which are challenging and productive. Imaging involves taking an imaginary trip into the future and identifying positive and satisfying features of the future.

A variety of school-related people have utilized this approach:

1. *A multiethnic curricular team* "took a trip" a year ahead and described new curriculum activities that showed the successful spread of multiethnic learning activities. From these images they selected the priority goals for the year.
2. *In an educational community conference* of a county school system, board members, citizens, school administrators, teachers, and leaders from other community agencies took a trip two years ahead and imagined improvements in the quality of education and new, more

effective patterns of collaboration in the community that pleased them. Using these images, they set up ad hoc forces to develop recommendations and plans to move toward the priority goals.

3. *The faculty and students from a high school* went ahead six months and described new patterns of classroom life and school management that pleased them, and then they selected "priority images" for which to plan.
4. *A student council* used an images trip to set goals.
5. *A PTA executive committee* took an exciting trip and then planned strategies for achieving priority images of increased participation by students, parents, and teachers.
6. *Administrative / board member teams* from ten school districts in a county met for two days, projecting year-ahead images of improvements in the quality of education, and worked as teams on the strategies and skills of moving toward the images that "turned them on."
7. *The board and administrators* of a school district took a trip a year ahead to observe all the ways volunteers were being used to enrich the individualization of instruction. Then they returned to the present and planned the development of a new school volunteer program.

In each of these cases the goal setter used aspects of the imaging process.

Images of Potentiality
A Narrative of Some "How To" Options

Summary of Steps in the Process

A. Taking an imaging trip.
B. Selecting priorities.
C. Translating image into goal.
D. Diagnosing helps and hindrances.
E. Brainstorming removal of hindrances.
F. Selecting feasible and realistic action priorities.
G. Determining implementation steps.
H. Planning for follow-through support.

A. *Some Alternative Options for Taking an Image Trip Into the Future*

Participants will take this trip into the future together, in groups of five to eight. They will need several large sheets of newsprint and an easel. One member in each subgroup should act as recorder and jot down images as they are reported.

"You are projecting yourselves ahead in time—one year—and making observations of what you see going on—speaking *in the present tense*—

you are there! *Be concrete* in reporting what you are seeing *that pleases you.*

"*You are not predicting* what you think will or will not happen. And you *are not expressing unreal fantasies.* You are observing desired developments which have a sense of reality and feasibility in a highly desirable future. Be creative! Use imagination! But be realistic. O.K., here are your instructions for the trip—the focus for your observations."

Setting #1

Part 1. "It is one year hence and you are looking down from your helicopter. You are seeing all the students in your school district. You are very pleased with their commitment and participation in the educational processes in the elementary, middle, and high schools. Describe in the present tense what experiences they are having and things they are doing that please you."

Part 2. "You are also pleased with the way the adults in the educational community are collaborating together. Please describe what is going on between individuals, groups, and organizations to make education a worthwhile productive experience for students."

Setting #2

Part 1. "It is one year hence and you are looking down from your helicopter at persons on the board, in the district office, and in the schools. Describe in the present tense what these persons are doing to make educational experiences worthwhile for students. What are they doing to turn kids on? Or to support such activities?"

Part 2. "You are also pleased with the improved communication and collaboration between those in the district office, members of the board, and staff in the schools. Describe what these persons are doing to increase the effectiveness of the educational process in your schools."

B. *Selecting a Priority*

After each subgroup has listed all the images of potentiality it can project, you are ready to return to the present, and in the present review the list for potential goals. The job now is to select a priority image (or possibly two) which participants agree is the most important to achieve and which they want to work toward.

Each subgroup then hangs its sheet on the wall with its priorities starred. Everyone wanders, reads, and checks the three or four priorities they are most excited about. From these checks it will be possible to choose four to ten priorities (depending on the size of the total group and the number that get quite a few checks), then give everyone a chance to regroup to work on the priority of their choice. These new groups become ad hoc task forces to carry through the steps of the planning process described below.

C. *Translating into a Goal Statement*

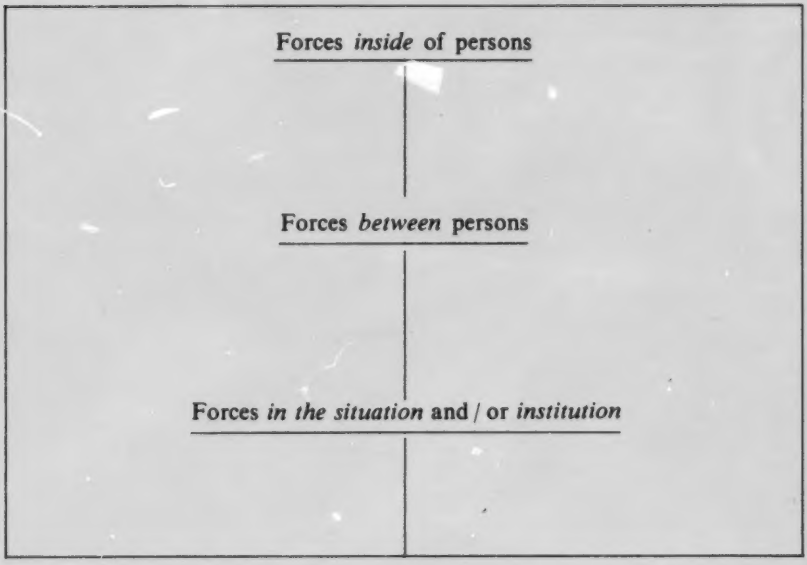
Your particular desired image of the future now needs to be formulated as a goal. It is important to make the goal as clear, concise, and specific as possible. To do this, try to state it in such a way that you can know when it has been achieved, that is, the goal must be measurable. Also, it is important to set a beginning and ending time for accomplishing this goal. Most of all, the goal should be realistic. It should be something which you feel you stand a good chance of achieving. If it would be pushing your luck, or would be something very difficult to achieve in the time alloted for it, perhaps you should amend it, clarify it further, or choose a different goal.

An example of a goal statement which meets these qualifications might be: *"To get board acceptance of a school volunteer program, and to have a program of recruitment and training of volunteers started by this time next year."*

D. *Diagnosis of Helps and Hindrances*

With your goal statement at the top of a large sheet, make the following chart on which you list all the factors or forces you can think of that will help, support, or push toward the goal (left-hand list) and then list all the factors or forces that might block or hinder movement toward the goal (right-hand list).

Goal Statement



Please note that we have suggested a way to clarify your forces as you list them on the chart.

1. Some forces will be *factors inside yourselves and other persons* (for example, lack of skill, ambivalence, enthusiasm, feeling of importance of goal).
2. Other forces will be generated by the relations *between people*, or the style of the group (for example, norms against trying anything new, consensus about importance).
3. Other forces will come from the *characteristic of the larger environment* and *institutions* (for example, lack of resources, of budget, of supportive policy).

Make as complete a list of factors as you can, realizing you may not have the data to be sure how strong some of them are—but make the best hunches you can.

E. *Brainstorming Removal of Hindrances and Mobilization of Supports*

First brainstorm all the ways to remove the hindrances you have listed. Then brainstorm all the ways to mobilize the supports you have listed. If you hit a plateau (a silent period) enjoy it. Often the best ideas come after the silence.

Brainstorm Rules:

1. Say every idea that comes to mind.
2. List *all* ideas.
3. Do not discuss.
4. Do not judge.
5. Repetition is O.K.

F. *Selecting Feasible Action Priorities*

Look at each of the two brainstorm lists you have just produced. Discuss each list and select from each the three, four, or five items you consider priorities for action. Star or circle these items so that they are easily identifiable.

G. *Steps of Implementation*

You are now ready to begin planning action steps. It is suggested that you include the following:

1. List *who* besides this group is needed to work on the selected priorities.
2. *How* will participants recruit these persons and *who* will do it? *When*?
3. *How* do we begin on the action steps? *What* do we need to do?
4. *Who* will do *what* to get us started?
5. *Where* do we start?
6. *When* will we report to each other on our progress?

H. *Planning for Follow-Through*

It is important to have follow-up meetings to support each other; to change plans or regroup; to report progress, or the lack of it; and to make new or additional plans. This follow-through can be done through face-to-face total group meetings, through subgroup meetings, and / or through telephone conference calls.

II

The Humane Classroom: Interpersonal Relations, Group Development, and Academic Achievement

As a creative, professional educator Bob Fox was almost always operating with a "trifocal" vision, paying attention at the same time to the individual child, the classroom group, and the educational establishment within which the classroom was operating. He recognized that the crucial manifestations and determiners of high or low quality educational process were manifest to a large degree in the interactions going on in the classroom. Some of his most exciting professional moments were from his involvement in discoveries and from his researches with his co-workers, about the underlying dynamics of the classroom process which provided critical insights into ways of improving the learning opportunities for all children.

Theme No. 1: *The Educational Implications of the Interpersonal Classroom System*

Bob summarized the conclusions of his research team thusly:

Pupils who feel comfortable with their peers are likely to utilize their academic abilities more fully than those who do not. Research findings show that most pupils who have at least several good friends among their classroom peers will enjoy better mental health and will learn more effectively then pupils who have few or no friends or who are actively disliked.

Futhermore, in a diffused pattern of classroom friendship, in which almost every member is rated "most liked" by some other member, pupils tend to have positive feelings towards themselves, perceive the school situation favorably, and make good use of their intellectual potentials. On the other hand, in a narrowly focused classroom pattern of friendship, in which one subgroup of pupils is most popular, another subgroup is most unpopular, and the rest of the pupils have few if any friends, many

> pupils tend to have negative feelings toward themselves, perceive school unfavorably, and make poor use of their potentials. If, as these findings indicate, successful human relations facilitate a pupil's academic achievement as well as his personal adjustment, it is crucial to do everything possible to enhance the emotional support a pupil receives from his peers. (1966a, p. 23)

Bob was fascinated with the fact that the distribution of love and of influence in the classroom looked like the distribution of wealth for the population of the country. Typically, a few students had most of it and the majority had a relatively small amount. He was very excited, however, when researchers discovered that classrooms differed greatly from one another in a profile of distribution of positive interpersonal affection and influence. Some classrooms, it was found, had a much flatter or more diffuse distribution, indicating that everyone was a recipient of some positive feelings from others and would be listened to when he or she expressed needs and ideas.

Bob was always concerned about finding very specific ideas and techniques for helping improve the distribution of acceptance and influence status. In a publication for elementary school teachers we find Bob writing:

> Miss Clarion, a third-grade teacher, was concerned about the small clique of girls in her room that was creating unhealthy tension and competition with the total group. She tried talking the problem over frankly with the girls in the clique and with the class and evolved with them a plan for reseating the group into "clubs" of eight persons to a table. Members of each club tried to get to know other members better, to help them when they needed it, and to give each person within the club the satisfaction of contributing to projects undertaken by the group. Clubs were reformed each eight weeks. (May 1953)

In a later chapter we will look at some of Bob's inventiveness in finding ways of discovering such important teacher inventions, and getting them spread to other teachers where they could be most useful.

Another challenging confrontation of classroom management derived from the discovery of the significant difference between a student's perception of how his classmates felt about him and judged him, and what the actual facts were. Bob was exploring this puzzle in the following excerpt from his writings:

> The pupil's own perception of his sociometric status is more relevant to his academic achievement and adjustment than is his actual status. Thus, pupils who perceive that they hold a low affective "liking" status in the group are lower utilizers of their abilities than those who perceive their status as being higher. Pupils who in reality have a low affective status but perceive it to be high utilize their ability to a higher level than those who have a low status and know it.

> This raises some very interesting and important questions about the role of teachers in helping pupils to become realistic in assessing accurately their position in the group. Should sociometric information be withheld from children? Should techniques be utilized to delude the child into thinking he is more favorably thought of by his classmates than he really is? (1965b)

Bob's interest in finding ways of helping children inquire objectively, openly, and safely into the phenomenon of their own interpersonal relationships was actively explored in a major action research project with a population of second and sixth grades. Rejected, low status children participated in weekly skill practice sessions, using a role-playing technique to learn to observe accurately and to behave more effectively in relations with peers. As we will see in a later chapter, he also developed a total elementary school curriculum for helping students use observations and other inquiry methods to study the phenomena of interpersonal relationships and to apply these to their own classroom interactions. Unlike some educators, Bob took the position that in reality "class members arrive rather quickly at a high level of consensus about the sociometric position of their classmates and these positions remain relatively stable over the years." Accepting this fact, Bob encouraged teachers and students to utilize techniques for openly identifying and working with these data rather than to avoid bringing such interpersonal facts of classroom life to the surface as a part of the learning opportunities.

Theme No. 2: *The Processes of Group Development as Supportive or Destructive of Individual Learning*

Bob became very involved in the "micro-sociology" of classroom groups, recognizing that there were phenomena of group norms, goals, contagion, and other collective phenomena that went beyond an analysis of the interpersonal relationships of individuals. He was interested in the educational importance of these group phenomena, particularly: (a) the misperception of group norms (pluralistic ignorance), (b) the climate of cooperation and competition, and (c) the norms in favor of or against asking for help. He writes:

> In the classroom it is important for the teacher to know that in addition to the expectations or standards he or she may have for the performance and the behavior of the pupils, the classroom peer group may have standards of its own. These peer-group norms may be supportive of the teacher's expectations or they may be at cross-purposes with them.
>
> But norms are not easily apparent. Seldom is there complete unanimity in a group as to what is "the thing to do." Each pupil has some private ideas about the proper thing to do in a given circumstance, they probably know what the teacher expects, and have some notion about what some of the

other pupils expect. Actual behavior will be the result of the extent to which the pupil allows each of these various expectations or perceptions of expectations to influence them.

The teacher may begin the inquiry into norms in the classroom by asking such questions as the following:

> Is it "the thing to do" in my classroom to cooperate with the teacher or does the group approval go to the pupil who attempts to obstruct, divert or embarrass the teacher?
>
> Do the pupils think that I'm for them, or against them?
>
> Do they feel that it's all right for one pupil to ask another for help? That it's a good idea to work hard on school work, or that it's best to do just enough to get by?

The teacher may find that there is not agreement by all pupils regarding these matters. For example, five underachieving boys in a sixth grade class agreed that school work is not worth the effort; that the teacher is not to be respected for his knowledge or teaching skill, but to be feared for his authority; that school achievement is "sissy," and that physical aggressiveness is the best way to gain the admiration of one's peers. These attitudes tended to be generated within the small clique; however, others in the classroom believed they were widely held because these boys were highly influential and visible in the social structure.

The teacher might find that a majority of the students perceive that most students are not interested in academic activities or cooperation with the teacher, yet each pupil may assert privately that he himself or herself likes school and feels the teacher is giving reasonable assignments, but perceives that most of the others think school work is too hard and that school is no fun. Here is confusion between the individual attitudes and what is perceived as being the group norm to which one must attempt to conform. Such a perceived group norm, however inaccurate, can be quite potent in influencing pupil behavior. (1966a, pp. 40-41)

Bob found this state of noncommunication, and collusion of ignorance, a very significant classroom phenomenon which was often very destructive of involvement in classroom learning activities and collaboration with the teacher. With his co-workers, he developed tools for collecting facts about such misconceptions and procedures for providing feedback of data to clarify the real situation and to promote open communication to replace the cautious noncommunication and misconceptions. He was very excited when he found how quickly such ignorance could be cleared up by appropriate feedback procedures and how much change could come about rapidly in a classroom atmosphere

when there was such opportunity for sharing information about feelings and attitudes.

Another research finding that activated Bob was the discovery that in a sentence completion test administered from the third to twelfth grade, a very significant proportion of the students responded to the phrase "helping each other" with the completion, "cheating." Clearly they had learned from their educational experiences that helping was likely to be labeled as cheating. This was part of a larger context of classrooms as competitive situations rather than cooperative enterprises where the sharing of resources in cooperative projects was the valued norm.

As a result of this discovery Bob and his co-workers became involved in a number of classroom experiments creating situations where it was a sign of strength and positive recognition to ask for help and to give help, rather than a basis for disapproval or a sign of weakness.

Theme No. 3: *Individualization of Instruction and Subgrouping*

Bob recognized that the teacher had a very complicated challenge in trying to pay attention to individual differences of interest, readiness, level of development, and motivation to participate in learning. He recognized there was always the diagnostic question of how to find out the facts about the differences that were relevant for a particular classroom activity and how to organize the learning process so that the individual differences could be recognized and supported. He recognized that subgroup work of various kinds, with optional choices, and effective consultation to the subgroups on how to work together, how to support each other, and how to accept and respect individual differences, were probably key elements in individualizing classroom work. In a chapter which he wrote on "organizing groups for participatory learning in the classroom," he comments:

> The particular design for learning may call for small-group discussion, observation in teams of two, individual project work, total class listening to presentation, or pair subgroups to interact with and consult each other.
>
> The teacher who has had most of her professional experience conducting class sessions in which all pupils are engaged in approximately the same learning activities simultaneously may have some questions about how to develop skill in managing several subgroupings working on a variety of tasks at the same time:
>
> How much responsibility can be given to a pupil group leader?
>
> What pupils should be grouped together?
>
> How can several small groups all be kept "down to business?"

> Doesn't it take more time having several groups working than teaching the entire class at one time?
>
> Is there any way a teacher can tell whether children have had experience in group work?
>
> Is it worthwhile to given children instructions about how to work in groups?
>
> How can individual or small group work be done if seats in the classroom are fixed to the floor?
>
> When should you have small groups, large groups, individual activities, total class activities . . . ?
>
> The teacher's job in the classroom conducted as a learning laboratory is that of skilled manager. She provides the atmosphere conducive to discovery while guiding pupils who are engaged in different activities toward making their own discoveries. (1969c)

In this chapter of the Science Research Associates publication, Bob presents five different designs for individualizing classroom activities and then presents a case study of a teacher going through the process of organizing for individualization of learning, taking her through six steps of decision making and action to carry the process through effectively.

Theme No. 4: *Outside Influences Which Impinge on Classroom Life*

As a principal of a school, as consultant to many parent organizations, and as a trainer of teachers, Bob stressed the fact that the child's life at school could not be separated from the other parts of his or her daily life, and that parents had a right and a responsibility to be involved in a child's life at school and to collaborate with teachers and administrators as co-planners, co-decision makers, and volunteers in helping with the learning activities in and outside of school. Reporting on his findings from research on classroom life he writes:

> Our research shows that pupils who perceive their parents as holding supportive attitudes toward their school life utilize their abilities more fully and make a more positive psychological adjustment to school than pupils who perceive less parental support. Indices for parental support of school, self-esteem, and pupil attitude toward school show that pupils who view their parents as supporting school have higher self-esteem and more positive attitudes toward school than pupils who perceive less parental support. Finally, sociometric status in the peer group and pupil perception of parental support of school, taken together, predict better a pupil's utilization of his abilities than one of these influences alone.
>
> Two examples from our data should help make these findings more concrete. Consider for instance this fourth grade boy who sees his parents

as unsupportive of school. When presented with the incomplete sentence, "When I talk about school, my father . . . ," he answers, "Doesn't like it." For the same sentence he fills in his mother's response as, "Says I am doing bad." He has an IQ of about 106, which is rather high according to the ability range of this particular class. However, his teacher says he is achieving at quite a low level for his ability. Furthermore, he manifests a very negative attitude toward himself and negative feelings towards school. He filled out the self items on the sentence completion in the following ways: "Sometimes I think . . . I'm nuts," "When I look at other boys and girls and then look at myself I feel—like a smart aleck," "When I look in the mirror—I see a bad boy." On another self-related incomplete sentence he writes, "When I am by myself I—feel stupid."

On some of the incomplete sentences for assessing his attitude towards school he answers: "My school work is—hard," "Studying is—not easy," "Homework is—stupid," "Learning out of books is—dumb."

This boy has few friends his own age, but by and large he appears to be isolated from his peers. His life as a pupil is not a happy one. His teacher sees him as a boy who is generally unaggressive in school, and she adds that sometimes he tries hard but is not able to concentrate for long periods.

Let us contrast him with another fourth grade boy who is achieving very highly considering his intelligence level. He has about as many close friends as his classmate described above, but shows a much different pattern of perceived parental support for school and attitudes towards school. On his sentence completion this boy writes: "When I talk about school, my father—likes to know what I have done in school," and "When I talk about school my mother—listens very carefully." On another item he writes, "A father is nice when—I talk about school," indicating his perception that his father is very supportive of him as a pupil.

In revealing his attitudes towards school, he answers, "Studying is—fun," "Homework is—fun when it is easy," "This school is—nice." He also views his teacher as reflecting general satisfaction with his behavior as a pupil. He writes "My teacher thinks I am—nice most of the time." (January 1964, pp. 90-91)

This illustration is a good example of Bob's continuing interest in the total world of the child and the way in which it influences participation in the educational process. Another important aspect of life outside the classroom became a very important interest for Bob, such as the influence of older children on learning activities in the classroom:

Relatively little research has been done on the nature of the relationship between older and younger children in the educational setting. The typical

> age-graded classroom of the modern school has tended to minimize the opportunities for interaction between pupils of different age levels. Such interaction as does take place is often unproductive. The tendency of the average child is to look up to the olders, to copy their actions, or to admire their more "mature" behavior. This looking up is usually frustrated by the domineering, belittling, exploitative, or rejecting attitudes taken by the olders. Typically the olders are learning to feel bigger for the wrong psychological reasons, and the youngers are being presented with poor models of human relations and are having their feelings of smallness and impotence accentuated.
>
> The educational potential in the cross-age relationship, on the other hand, would seem to be considerable. Older children would be able to exercise their influence on younger pupils in a highly positive way, capitalizing on the youngers' tendency to model their behavior and the desire most children have to push on towards the next higher level of maturity. The olders, in turn, could enhance their own self-esteem, organize better their own knowledge in order to teach it, and gain emotional satisfaction out of a helping rather than a competitive relationship. (1965b)

In the University Laborabory School which he directed, Bob supported some of the first cross-age helping experimentations between the sixth grade and the first grade, conducted by Peggy Lippitt. This pilot tryout was expanded into a larger experiment in different school settings and with helping relations between students of different age levels. Bob was very active in disseminating the cross-age helping materials that developed from this project and are now widely used in many school systems.

Theme No. 5: *The Teacher as a Classroom Leader*

Bob was always struggling with the balance between giving weight to the equalitarian aspect of interactions between teachers and learners, and the responsibility for taking leadership initiative in giving guidance and discipline to the learning process. Bob writes:

> Teaching is leadership. The teacher is concerned with the growing edge of our society. . . . Teachers are leaders. The very process of teaching is leadership at its highest level. Vision, creativity, knowledge, skill in human relations, organizational ability—these are basic requirements for the teacher.
>
> There is much to challenge his leadership skills: the tremendous range of individual differences among the children and youth with whom he works; the variation in maturity levels; the need to work effectively not only with the students but with professional colleagues, with parents, and with the community. . . . Important as is the leadership responsibility of the

> teacher in working directly with children and youth, there exist many other opportunities and responsibilities for him to exert educational leadership. I believe there can be no more effective means of involving parents in the school program than at the classroom level. The teacher can capitalize on the interest a parent has in his own child, the relative informality of small groups, and the opportunity to focus on cooperative responsibility of parent and teacher. They are both concerned with working out a consistent, 24-hour educational program for the child. (December 1956, pp. 138–139)

But Bob emphasized very strongly the democratic nature of the needed leadership style of the teacher when he wrote:

> The democratic style has been found most effective because participation in decision making normally means stronger identification with teacher and the group, and a commitment to jointly held goals. It is likely also to promote spontaneous cooperation and enhance originality and creativity. (1965b)

As Bob probed more deeply into the dynamics of the relationship between teachers and students in his research activities, he began to emphasize more concrete aspects of the relationship which he began to incorporate into his teacher training activities. We find him, for example, reporting:

> The working relationship between pupil and teacher seems also to be affected by the differential treatment teachers give to pupils of varying types. Most teachers favor girls, rewarding their verbal complying behavior, while rejecting the more aggressive acting out behavior of boys. Some teachers relate best to the low-ability, high-achieving child (that is, the child who has average or below average intelligence, but is striving hard and making the most of it), but have little patience with the low-ability, low-achieving child. There are teachers who are stimulated and challenged by the high-ability, high-achieving pupil, and others who are threatened by such pupils.
>
> The teacher's feeling about and behavior toward individual pupils can make a big difference in the learning climate of the classrooms. For example, if the teacher supports primarily the high achievers and shows rejecting or disapproving behavior towards those who are not so successful in learning tasks, a competitive, non-supportive learning climate is likely to emerge. The data indicate that the more a pupil and teacher feel friendly toward each other the higher the utilization of intelligence on the part of the learner will be. Pupil satisfaction with the teacher and the pupil's academic performance are very positively related. In fact our data concludes that high satisfaction with the teacher appears to be more powerful than

all other social influence factors (social class, parental support, peer status) in effecting full utilization of intelligence. (1965b)

Some Tools and Resources

Bob and his co-workers felt that one of the greatest helps to teachers in improving their effectiveness was the use of diagnostic tools for getting feedback from students about their feelings and involvements in the learning activities of the classroom. Working with a group of classroom teachers for several years they developed and tested a variety of tools and procedures teachers could use to get the information they needed to review and improve their leadership role in the classroom. The resultant tool kit, *Diagnosing Classroom Learning Environments,* by Robert Fox, Margaret Luszki, and Richard Schmuck, is published (1966) by Science Research Associates of Chicago as one of their Teacher Resource Booklets.

We are including below a sample of three tools (Fox et al. 1966) teachers and students have found helpful in improving their life together. You will no doubt want to adopt these ideas to your own needs and classrooms.

Example No. 1

Here is a tool to get reactions at the end of a classroom period:

Date_____

Your Number _____

Class _____

My Feelings About Our Class Period

Here are some questions about what happened in class today. Circle the letter in front of the statement that best tells how you feel about what happened. *There are no right or wrong answers.*

1. How much do you feel you learned today?
   a. Don't think I learned much.
   b. Learned a little bit.
   c. Learned quite a lot.
   d. Learned a lot today.

   Please write why you feel this way. _____

2. How clear was it why we are doing _____ ?
[refer to some specific activity]
   a. Very clear to me.
   b. Pretty clear to me.
   c. Not so very clear.
   d. Not clear at all.
   What do you think was the reason we did what we did? _____

3. How often did you feel lost during this class period?
   a. Lost most of the time.
   b. Lost quite a few times.
   c. Lost a couple of times.
   d. Not lost at all.
   What made you feel lost? _____

4. How often did you feel you wanted some extra help during this class period today?
   a. Wanted help quite a few times.
   b. Wanted help several times.
   c. Wanted a little help once or twice.
   d. Wanted no help.
   What kind of help did you want? _____

5. How often did you see somebody else needing help during our class period today?
   a. Saw somebody needing help a lot.
   b. Saw somebody needing help quite a few times.
   c. Saw somebody needing help a few times.
   d. Saw nobody needing help.
   How could they be helped? _____

6. How do you feel about your participation in the discussion this last period?
   a. Not satisfied at all.
   b. Not very satisfied.
   c. Fairly satisfied.
   d. Very satisfied.
   Why do you feel this way? _____

_____

_____

7. How do you feel about what the teacher did in this last class period?
   a. Very satisfied.
   b. Pretty well satisfied.
   c. Only a little satisfied.
   d. Not satisfied.
   What makes you feel this way? _____

_____

_____

Variations for Lower Elementary Grades

Research has shown that it is valid and worthwhile to use sociometric tools for groups of children as young as kindergarten age. But teachers of very young pupils must use fewer and simpler written words in administering diagnostic tools. One technique that has proven useful for finding out the feelings of these pupils is a scale represented by faces, ranging from very sad to very happy. This can serve where the response to an item is in terms of degree of emotional response, from very positive to very negative. The teacher asks the pupil to put an X under the face that shows how he feels.

In using this tool it is very important for the teacher to give a report back of "what your data said" or "the main ideas I got from your reactions" and "some things I think I might do and you might do to make our classwork more interesting." Another procedure some teachers use is to put a tabulation of the data up on the board, or on a ditto, and have a class discussion about the questions "What does the data tell us?" and "What are all the ideas we can think of to make the changes we'd like to?"

Example No. 2

Here is another tool some teachers use as a periodic evaluation to get students involved in planning to improve classroom life, and to assess progress.

> So that the members of the class and their teacher may get ideas about how to make like more interesting and important for everybody in the class, each

person needs to contribute his or her ideas of what needs to be improved. What things happen that shouldn't happen? What ought to happen that doesn't? Try to imagine you are a detective looking for clues to a "good day" and a "bad day" in your class. Jot down what you might look for or might see to answer these questions. *There are no right or wrong answers.*

What are some clues to a good day in our class. What things happen that are signs of a good day?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

What are some clues to a bad day in our class? What things happen that are clues that class is not going the way it should or that you would like it to?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

What are some things that should happen a lot more than they do to make it a better class for learning and having fun?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Some teachers have found it very helpful to assess these questions themselves and to compare their responses with the students, sharing these findings for

discussion. A volunteer student Research Committee can be very helpful in summarizing the data from this tool and reporting their findings. The discussion can focus on "What would we like to change in the way our class looks?" Some classes have used a rotating Observation Team to watch for the *clues* that are evidence of derivable change or needs for improvement. Creative teachers have helped their classes to celebrate progress toward their goals of improvement.

Example No. 3

The third sample tool, reproduced below, has been used by some teachers to collect feedback from the students about their own role in the classroom. This demonstration of openness to feedback has been found to create an attitude of two-way communication which has made the students ready and open to receive feedback from their teacher.

Perhaps one of the most appropriate summaries for this chapter is a comment Bob made in concluding a workshop session with a group of teachers: "If only we can create the idea, in ourselves and our students, that we are partners in learning, that we share responsibility for making our work together fun and productive, what a beautiful revolution we would have in teaching and learning."

Date _____

Class _____

(Don't write your number.)

My Teacher

Pretend that you could have your teacher *change* in some way. For each number, check the box that *best tells how you would like your teacher to act in this class. There are no right or wrong answers.*

	Much More than he does now	*A little more* than he does now	*The same* as he does now	*A little less* than he does now	*Much less* than he does now
1. Help with work					
2. Make sure work is done					
3. Ask us to decide about how we will work					
4. Smile and laugh					
5. Make us behave					
6. Trust us on our own					
7. Make us work hard					
8. Show that he understands how we feel					
9. Tell us how well we have done					

III

The Curriculum of Humaneness

During his years as an early childhood educator, Bob placed primary emphasis on the skill of the teacher in modeling desirable behavior and creating a good classroom atmosphere. In later years his experimentation led him to conclude that many of the core social-emotional attitudes, skills, and values could be learned most effectively by making these desired outcomes the direct concern of the curriculum rather than assuming they will be developed as indirect consequences of a good ongoing learning process in the classroom. During the last decade of his life he was actively involved, with a team of colleagues, in creating curriculum resource materials focused on teaching the values, attitudes, and skills of human relations.

Theme No. 1: *The Human Relations Curriculum as Basic to All the Curriculum in the Schools*

In a 1964 statement, Bob comments:

> Relatively li*tle use of the laboratory method of learning has been made in social science education as contrasted to the physical and biological sciences . . .
>
> It is fully as important to teach the young students applications of scientific methodology to the study and understanding of human phenomena as it is to the study of biological and physical phenomena.
>
> There is a need to include in the curriculum materials on human behavior and motivation, social interaction, and group behavior. . . .
>
> These very rapidly growing fields of scientific knowledge and specialization are highly relevant to general education and to the scientific training and personal development of the students.
>
> Some of the learnings in these areas of subject matter have general relevance to the effectiveness of the students' learning activities in all areas of knowl-

edge (e.g., such topics as conforming behavior, how we learn, intergenerational relations, group decision making, etc.) (June 1964)

In 1973, describing what the curriculum would look like in a truly humane school, he further clarifies and concretizes his conception:

The humanizing school, in addition to utilizing the school program in all its aspects as a laboratory for the practice of effective human relations, focuses attention on the teaching of human relations as subject matter. The curriculum draws on the resources of the behavioral sciences—psychology, sociology, and social psychology in particular. Criteria for the choice of content include (a) relevance to students' immediate needs, and (b) significance as part of the core of basic knowledge as seen by the social scientist.

For example, students have opportunities to gain conceptual background, develop skills, and examine their values in relation to such problem areas as

- — relating to people and groups different from themselves
- — working together in groups
- — influencing and being influenced
- — learning from adults
- — decision making and carrying plans into action.

The job of putting together a human relations curriculum must be a creative one. Bits and pieces exist, but no ready-made systematic scope and sequence plan is available. The humanizing school takes leadership in developing new curriculum plans and procedures that emphasize learning goals in the area of interpersonal and intergroup relationships. Some new curriculum units and activities will be designed to enrich and improve the learning climate for students in connection with each of the special subject areas. Other procedures will be relevant to the school program as a whole, requiring additions to or restructuring of the curriculum design so that human relations does in fact become a major focus of the total school program. . . .

The curriculum in the humanizing school becomes responsive to interpersonal and intergroup needs in a number of ways. Learning to learn receives major attention. Inquiry, a basic ingredient in the learning process, is used as an approach to curriculum organization. Methodological units are devised to confront students with actual phenomena which develop skills in formulating inquiry questions; setting appropriate goals; identifying and retrieving resources; gathering evidence through observation, interview and questionnaire; distinguishing among observed fact, inference and value judgement; analyzing data; seeking alternative interpretations or solutions; and experimenting with preferred solutions. Once the students have developed skills in using this scientific problem solving process, they can apply them in academic subjects as well as current life situations.

> The learner is provided opportunities to diagnose personal strength and weaknesses for the purpose of developing a personal learning and growth plan. The student is assisted in identifying areas in which he can take initiative, in developing his identity as a learner in all areas of subject matter. (1973e)

From his research with his colleagues on the functioning of classroom groups and the effects of interpersonal relations on the motivation and ability to learn, Bob became increasingly convinced that all types of learning efforts depended on mentally healthy peer relations, positive self-esteem, reciprocal relations with adult resource figures, motivation to learn, freedom to risk inquiry initiatives, and a noncompetitive readiness to ask for and to give help. He saw those factors as necessary and appropriate targets for curriculum development, as part of the core curriculum of the humane school.

Theme No. 2: *What Should Be Studied as Human Relations Curriculum?*

With the orientation indicated above, it was inevitable that Bob should become involved in questions about the appropriate content of the social studies curriculum. In 1969 he writes:

> Interest in the revision and improvement of elementary social studies is clearly increasing. While leaders in the field of mathematics, the physical sciences, and the biological sciences have made great progress in bringing curricula abreast of current knowledge, there has been no similar movement, at least not until very recently, in social studies. This is true even though social science research and theory have made great strides in the past quarter century.
>
> Social scientists and curriculum specialists have denoted a number of limitations in some types of social studies education.
>
> First, social studies have been frequently considered primarily a body of information to be mastered by the student; the curriculum has emphasized memorizing facts rather than critical analytical thinking.
>
> Second, little mention has been given to value inquiry.
>
> Third, we have been inclined to underestimate the learning potential of children. With the advent of the new mathematics and physical science curricula, children have demonstrated that they can understand and use concepts traditionally reserved for high school or even college students.
>
> We've also assumed an obligation to protect children from the "harsh realities" of life.
>
> And finally, many current social studies curricula do not adequately represent the disciplines that deal with man and his social world. (1969c, pp. 5-6)

In working with his team of colleagues on these questions of the appropriate content for the humane school, Bob reported one of their phases of thinking as follows:

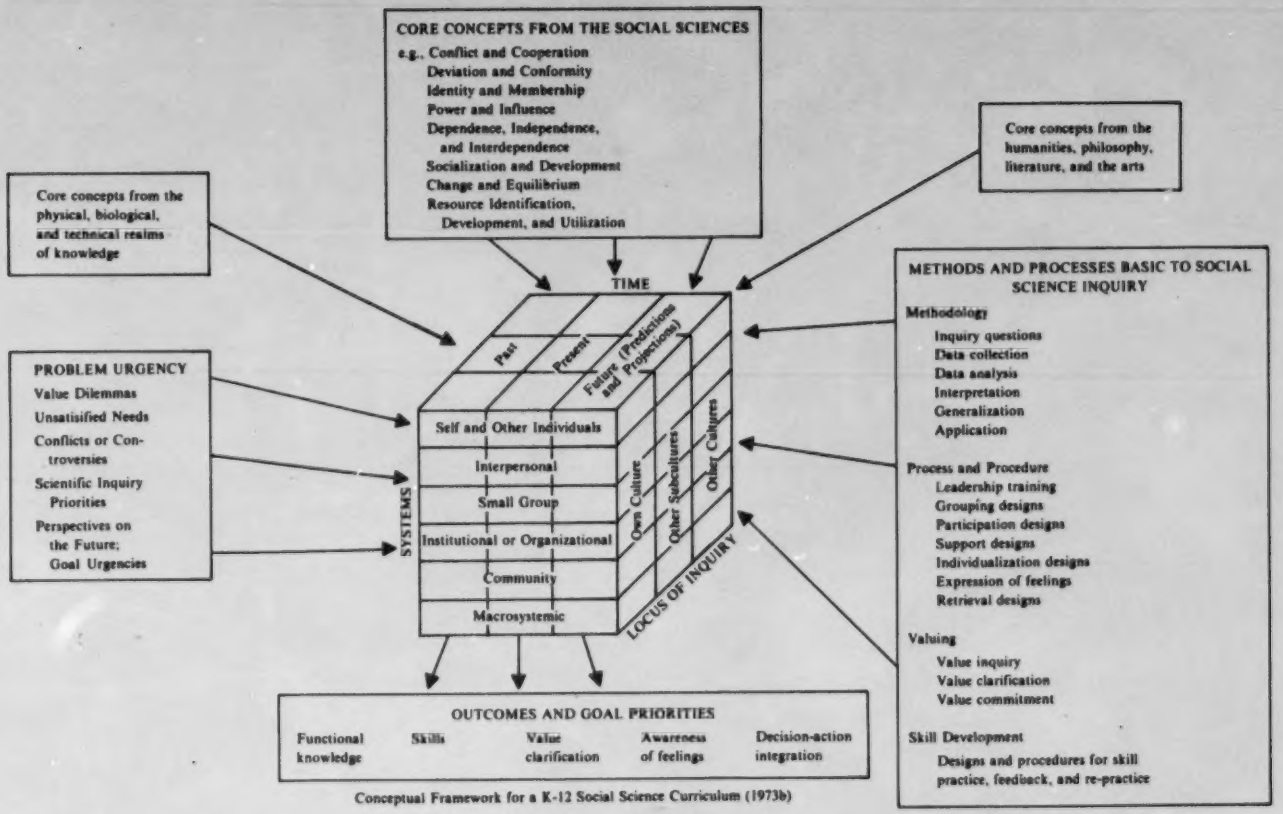
> Our work to date has led us to conclude that it is important to develop a focus on certain "core phenomena" that have been the object of study by psychologists, social psychologists, sociologists and other social scientists as a basis for the learning of concepts and methods of the different disciplines. In our work to date we have been exploring the idea that one cluster of disciplines for curriculum integration in this manner would be psychology, social psychology, and micro-sociology; another cluster would focus around economics, macro-sociology and geography; and a third cluster would have political science as core with aspects of sociology, geography and history. We are exploring the idea that anthropology would contribute a comparative perspective to the learning resources in all the clusters. (1973b)

In 1966, with this orientation, Bob helped organize an interdisciplinary study group which conducted extensive interviews of a wide variety of social scientists to explore the degree to which there were common concepts, methods, and phenomena underlying the work of the various disciplines which provided the excitement and "cutting edges" for developments in the various fields. The group probed and tape-recorded sessions with representatives from social psychology, personality development, general psychology, cognitive psychology, learning theory, group dynamics, educational psychology, organizational theory, political science, micro-economics, macro-economics, family sociology, educational psychology, educational sociology, developmental psychology, and anthropology.

The group reported 12 dimensions of core concepts and also a great deal of congruence among the disciplines on the important aspects of scientific method to be emphasized in the curriculum content.

As the reader might expect, Bob turned his attention to another central criterion in the selection of curriculum content. In addition to his concern for selecting valid and generic content from the disciplines to communicate to the youth, he was critically concerned about the relevance of this content to the interests and ongoing life spaces of the young learners. He saw this question of content relevance or "problem urgency" as being generated not only by the needs and interests of the young learners, but also by the urgencies and controversies in the surrounding society and the value dilemmas presented by the attitudes and behavioral alternatives available for consideration.

Bob Fox was very oriented toward conceptualizing by visualizing relationships in diagram form. He spent many hours developing and revising the diagram on the next page as an attempt to summarize all the ideas and dimensions of the content of the curriculum about human and social relations as it



Conceptual Framework for a K-12 Social Science Curriculum (1973b)

had emerged from the discussions and was providing guidance for the development of the curriculum units. The reader will note that the core concepts from the social sciences and the supplemental concepts from the humanities, philosophy, literature, the arts, and the physical and biological sciences generate one set of criteria (across the top). Another set are generated on the right of the cube by the methods and processes which are to be taught along with the content. The faces of the cube itself indicate that the phenomena to be taught will deal with past, present, and future and with all levels of social system from self to interpersonal relations to small groups, community and macro-system, and will also deal with comparative study of own groups and others. The guiding principle of problem urgency (left side) already referred to, helps select the particular phenomena for study for any age level and any individual learner. The outcomes indicated at the bottom of the diagram emphasize another major concern of Bob's which we can summarize in this quote from him:

> Real learning requires that we focus on the links within the learner, between cognitive information, the values and attitudes relevant to that information, and skills of using the information and actualizing the values through plans, commitments and skilled actions.
>
> This point emphasizes one type of interdisciplinary integration which we believe is a core aspect of our curriculum and its use by learners. Too often social science analysis fails to bring together the analytic or causal-process understanding of a problem with the value or policy aspects and the action implications and action-taking aspects of that problem. Diagnosis, evaluation, planning and action must be part of a meaningful problem-solving or inquiry process. (1973b, p. 7)

Theme No. 3: *How Should the Curriculum Content be Studied?*

As he has attempted to indicate in his diagram, Bob saw a very close interdependence between the substantive knowledge to be learned, the methods of inquiry to be learned, and the process of inquiry by which the substantive and methodological learning would be achieved. As he put it:

> Any curriculum can be well selected, the materials well developed, and the concepts well presented, but still the learning opportunities may not be used by the potential teachers and learners because there is no motivation or support for a learning transaction. There must be a perception of relevance, generating a commitment to put effort into learning. There needs to be a supportive peer situation, with norms that legitimize and even reward the role of learner. There must be positive affective relations and respect feelings between teacher and learner. The teachers may be older peer helpers, or a librarian, or classroom aide, or volunteer, or a more expert same-age peer. And the learning activities must support the learner

> in making connections between cognitive learnings, affective meanings, and in making connections between cognitive learnings, affective meanings, and evaluated derivations for self. They must lead to generalizing or applying learnings to other contexts and to meaningful implications. Learnings that stay purely cognitive and external to the self are short lived and non-functional, and a sequence of such experiences "turns off" the learner. He loses motivation to respond to future opportunities. Because the process of learning is fraught with frustrations, full commitment to inquiry learning must be supported by freedom of the participants to reflect on and cope with the process issues of "working at learning." (1973b, pp. 9-10)

In attempting to clarify this relationship between learning content and the learning process, Bob worked hard on developing another diagram, which is reproduced on page 44, as another of his contributions to conceptualizing the inquiry process which is so widely talked about and so little utilized.

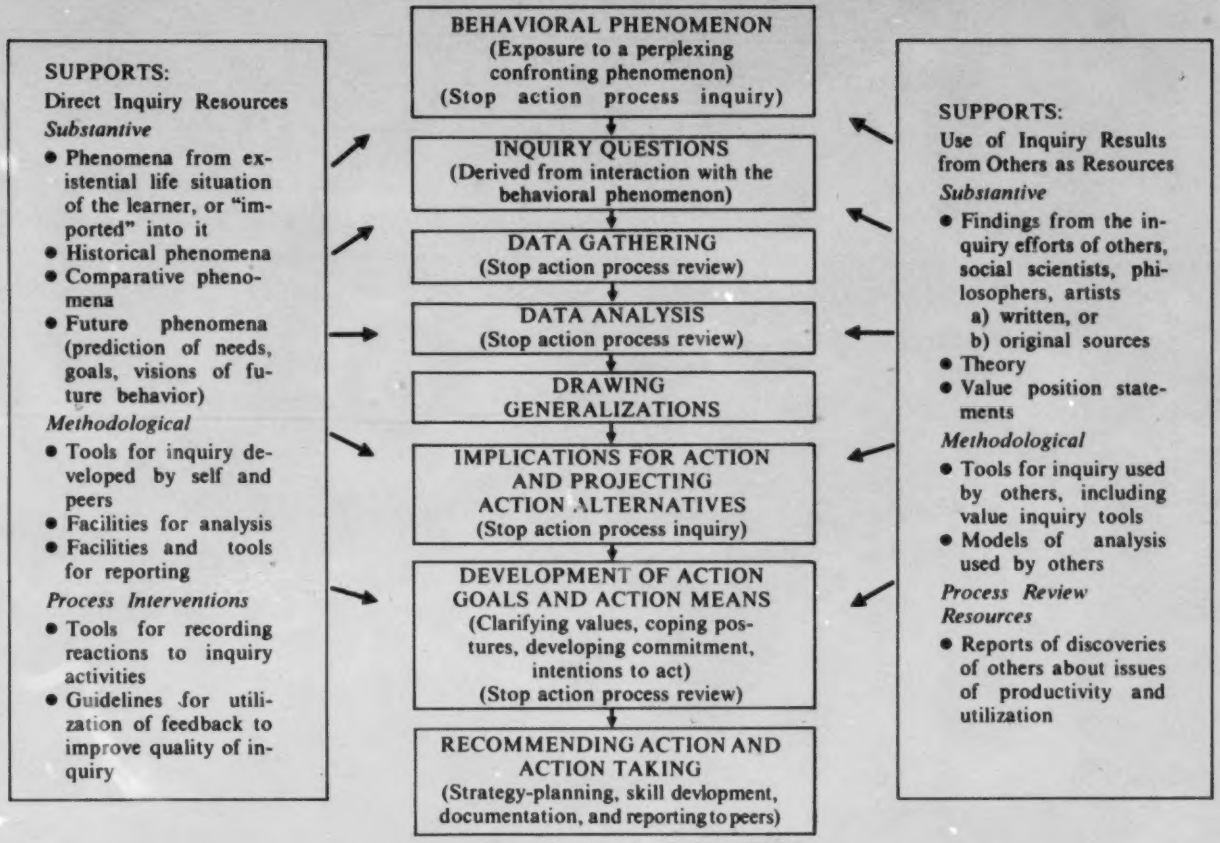
Theme No. 4: *The Process of Curriculum Development and Revision*

Bob very perceptively saw that the principles which operated to determine what the students would be motivated to learn were the same principles which applied in determining whether teachers would be active and creative or resistant and conservative in adapting and developing new curriculum and new teaching methods as a part of their ongoing practice as educational leaders. As Bob puts it:

> Statements of objectives look nice on paper—they give respectability to a curriculum plan that is to be shared with others—but of what use are they? Don't teachers go ahead and do what they want to do anyway? Is it not true that the realities of the situation take over when a proposed curriculum change is to be implemented at the classroom level? . . . Is it not possible the real difficulty is that the people who are in a position to have some influence on the curriculum are operating in terms of value systems that condition the use they will make of the available resources? Principles of learning, analysis of the society and the community, disciplines of subject areas—these are resources that can be used or discarded; or more frequently used in part to the extent that they support the values and orientations held by the participants. (October 1962a)

In describing the operation of the humane school, Bob indicates that parents, students, and teachers are all involved in a continuous program of curriculum review, experimentation, and evaluation. As he describes it:

> Only through continuous evaluation will the humanizing school concept be able to reach its maximum potential. Evidence of the effectiveness of specific curriculum programs or projects and of progress toward desired long-


SUPPORTS:
Direct Inquiry Resources
Substantive
• Phenomena from existential life situation of the learner, or "imported" into it
• Historical phenomena
• Comparative phenomena
• Future phenomena (prediction of needs, goals, visions of future behavior)
Methodological
• Tools for inquiry developed by self and peers
• Facilities for analysis
• Facilities and tools for reporting
Process Interventions
• Tools for recording reactions to inquiry activities
• Guidelines for utilization of feedback to improve quality of inquiry
BEHAVIORAL PHENOMENON
(Exposure to a perplexing confronting phenomenon)
(Stop action process inquiry)
INQUIRY QUESTIONS
(Derived from interaction with the behavioral phenomenon)
DATA GATHERING
(Stop action process review)
DATA ANALYSIS
(Stop action process review)
DRAWING GENERALIZATIONS
IMPLICATIONS FOR ACTION AND PROJECTING ACTION ALTERNATIVES
(Stop action process inquiry)
DEVELOPMENT OF ACTION GOALS AND ACTION MEANS
(Clarifying values, coping postures, developing commitment, intentions to act)
(Stop action process review)
RECOMMENDING ACTION AND ACTION TAKING
(Strategy-planning, skill development, documentation, and reporting to peers)
SUPPORTS:
Use of Inquiry Results from Others as Resources
Substantive
• Findings from the inquiry efforts of others, social scientists, philosophers, artists
a) written, or
b) original sources
• Theory
• Value position statements
Methodological
• Tools for inquiry used by others, including value inquiry tools
• Models of analysis used by others
Process Review Resources
• Reports of discoveries of others about issues of productivity and utilization

The Flow of an Inquiry Project (1973b)

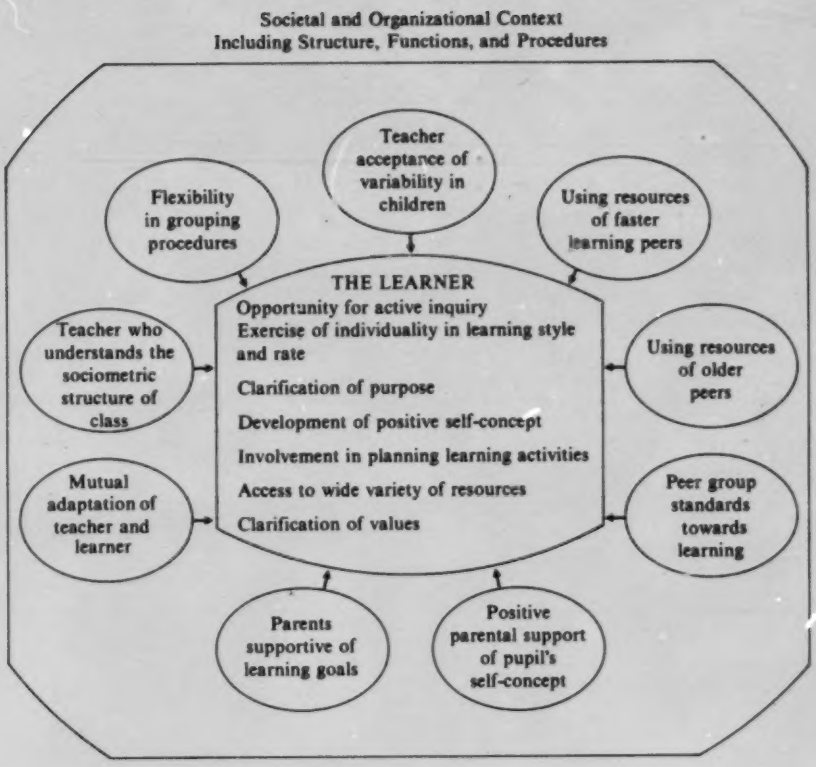
> range outcomes is gathered. In fact, a major characteristic of the humanizing school is that feedback is provided promptly, continuously, and in the form that enables the recipient—whether student, teacher, faculty-student-parent committee, or the entire school community—to relate the evidence to agreed upon objectives. Evaluation is not primarily a judgment by one person about another's performance, but a collaborative process of goal setting, planning for and getting appropriate data, and making judgments about revision based on the data. (1973e)

In other words, Bob saw a curriculum development process as a continuous action-research process with involvement of all the participants who had a vested interest in the success of the activity and the nature of the contents and methods utilized. He often said, "In education we have curriculum adaptation, not curriculum adoption."

So Bob saw curriculum development, adaptation, and revision as an integral part of the total flow of the problem-solving and learning processes of the educational community. In the following diagram he attempted to conceptualize and visualize this basic orientation of his.

A Model of the Educational Process

This model indicates the direct influences which exist in an organizational and societal context as they interact with the learner to create good learning experiences. (Fox et al., August 1966)


Societal and Organizational Context
Including Structure, Functions, and Procedures
Teacher acceptance of variability in children
Flexibility in grouping procedures
Using resources of faster learning peers
THE LEARNER
Opportunity for active inquiry
Exercise of individuality in learning style and rate
Clarification of purpose
Development of positive self-concept
Involvement in planning learning activities
Access to wide variety of resources
Clarification of values
Teacher who understands the sociometric structure of class
Using resources of older peers
Mutual adaptation of teacher and learner
Peer group standards towards learning
Parents supportive of learning goals
Positive parental support of pupil's self-concept

IV

Diagnosis: Improving the Climate for Learning and Teaching

Consistent with his beliefs that individuals should be directly involved in making decisions about their own development, and that such decisions ought to be based on reliable information, Bob Fox helped create several data collection instruments for classroom or schoolwide use. His goal was to provide educators with means of assessing their immediate educational environment—be that interpersonal relations in the classroom, student perceptions of their classroom climate, or faculty members' role expectations for each other.

In this chapter we shall summarize five themes which Bob related to diagnosis of the learning climate. The first theme illustrates his approach to diagnosis, which he used as an aid to problem solving rather than as a means of fixing blame. The remaining themes represent a "level of analysis" approach to diagnosis—moving from the individual level to the organization level.

Theme No. 1: *Diagnosis as a Means of Facilitating Renewal*

To Bob Fox, diagnosis was a very important element in the problem-solving process. He believed that diagnosis was a tool for moving beyond symptoms of pain to underlying reasons for personal, interpersonal, and organizational problems. But he sought more than insight into the underlying causes. Diagnosis was always a step in a process that included action-taking decisions. In *Diag..osing Professional Climate of Schools*, he wrote:

> A problem-solving process can be thought of as a continuously recurring series of steps to bring about improvements. The following major phases should be included:
>
> 1. Identifying the problem.
> 2. Diagnosing the problem.
> 3. Considering action alternatives.
> 4. Trying out an action plan.
> 5. Diffusion and adaptation (sharing information about successful problem solving). (1973a, pp. 11-13)

> Diagnosis pervades every step. Problem identification is itself a form of diagnostic activity. Action alternatives must be assessed in terms of movement toward a desired goal as well as by other criteria. Even diffusion and adaptation involves determining appropriate target groups, channels of dissemination, and means of utilization.

To Bob diagnosis was vitally important in the process of change or renewal. He wrote:

> Continuous attention to diagnosis is the cornerstone of objective problem-solving. Without complete, accurate diagnosis, problems tend to multiply. Fads are accepted which do not fit the local situtations where they are applied. Potentially good solutions are abandoned without realizing the slight changes which were needed to make them work. Decisions are made on the basis of people's ability to argue or on the status they have, rather than on the facts of the situation. Helpful innovations are rediscovered and die repeatedly without being effectively shared, because people do not know what to tell or what to ask about how they worked. (1973a, p. 22)

Before looking at diagnostic tools that apply to individuals, let us review how Bob viewed the school as a social system. His model is learner centered—a series of concentric circles moving outward from the learner to "general societal and governmental forces." (1973a, p. 4)

Each concentric circle represents a subsystem interacting with all the others, but influencing most directly the subsystems closest to it. Consequently, in this chapter we have chosen diagnostic tools that either focus on a particular subsystem, such as the learner, or that can be used to investigate relationships between subsystems, such as the learner and the classroom peer group. We shall deal with only certain subsystems or levels of analysis in Bob's model, moving from the central circle—the learner—to the level of the faculty peer group.

Theme No. 2: *Diagnosing the Individual Learner*

In *Diagnosing Classroom Learning Environments*, Bob and his co-authors approach the individual learner in terms of the learner's self-concept. They point out:

> When a child first enters school, he brings a self-concept with him. He was not born with it, but he has been developing it as one part of the process of growing up and will continue to develop and modify it during his years in school. A self-concept develops largely through a child's interactions with people who are important to him. His first feelings about himself are reflections of his parents' feelings about him . . . As the child grows the other members of his family and later his peer group, his teachers, and other members of the community contribute further to the formation of his self-concepts. Self-concepts, then, develop to a great extent through the perceptions and evaluations of others: We come to see ourselves as we think others see us. (1966a, p. 90)

General Societal and Governmental Forces
General Consultants — Outside Resource People and Change Agents — University Personnel
Parent and Lay Citizen Policy and Advisory Groups — School Board —
Central Office Admin.
School System Superintendent
Principal
Supervisors — Coordinators
Faculty Peer Group
Direct Workers with Students
Teachers — Volunteers
Classroom Peer Group
The Learner
Teachers' Aides
Other School Building Staff and Admin.
— Parent Advisory Committees —
U.S. Office of Educ. — State Depts. of Education

THE SUB-SYSTEMS OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM

Bob believed that teachers should be concerned about their students' self-concepts for several reasons. For one thing, a student's self-concept can be one indicator of his / her mental health—a positive and realistic self-concept suggests good mental health. Secondly, how a person feels about himself or herself can affect that person's negative feelings and behavior toward others. Thirdly, a person's self-concept has some relationship to his or her academic achievement. Students with low self-concepts tend to have lower academic achievement than students with higher self-concepts. Fourth, a person's self-concept can be changed. Because one's self-concept is learned, the teacher and others closely associated with a student can take part in altering his or her self-concept in either a positive or negative direction.

Although teachers can make informal judgments about their students' self-concepts by observing the student's interactions with others and by listening to their talk, more direct measures of students' self-perceptions are available. For example, Bledsoe and Garrison* have developed a Self-Concept Scale, which consists of a series of adjectives on which one rates oneself on terms of both "This is the way I am," and "This is the way I'd like to be." On the Self-Concept Scale, 25 of 30 adjectives indicate positive qualities, such as friendly, thoughtful, careful; five are considered negative (lazy, mean, selfish, jealous, and bashful). For each adjective there are three possible ratings: "nearly always," "about half the time," and "just now and then." These three possible responses are given numerical weights and the Self-Concept Scale is scored by adding up the weighted ratings. Totals provide a quantitative measure of "how positively a pupil sees himself and also of how much discrepancy exists between the way he pictures himself and the way he would like to be. (1966a, p. 99)

A simpler paper and pencil measure of self-concept is a list of sentence completions. In Bob's opinion:

> A sentence-completion tool is flexible in that it can be varying length, from about 10 to 50 items for elementary school pupils; it can be designed to tap many areas of life, such as family and home, attitudes toward school and toward self, aspirations, and the like; and the stems can be variously structured according to the teacher's objectives. Some items give the pupil wide latitude in what he writes, as in "children _____" or "When I _____."
>
> Other stem structures limit responses to a particular area or even a single dimension. The following stem generally elicits characteristics that children value in the classroom peer group: The kinds of pupils I like most are _____" . . . (or) When I talk about school, my mother (father) _____" are also highly structured items, producing responses that can be coded according to the degree of positive-to-negative effect. (1966a, p. 103)

A few sentence stems that Bob and his co-authors regarded as especially useful for obtaining diagnostic data about the self are (1966a, p. 96):

> If I could be someone else, I _____.
>
> My teacher thinks I am _____.
>
> I am best when _____.

*J. C. Bledsoe and K. C. Garrison, *The Self-Concepts of Elementary School Children in Relation to Their Academic Achievement, Intelligence, Interests, and Manifest Anxiety.* (Athens: University of Georgia, College of Education, 1962.)

What I like to do most is _____.

I am happiest when _____.

Most of all I want to _____.

I often wish _____.

Theme No. 3: *Diagnosing the Classroom Peer Group*

The next "circle" beyond the learner in Bob's model is the classroom peer group. At this level, diagnosis may deal with either student perceptions of the class or student interactions in the classroom setting. However, we shall confine our discussion of the theme to tools for getting at student perceptions.

For example, it is often useful to know both how the student views others in the class and how he or she thinks they view him. This is important information for two reasons—first it has implications for the development of the student's self-concept, and, second, it may partially explain low or high levels of trust and cooperation among students in a given class. Two tools for the collection of these data are: "How They See Me" and "The People in My Class."

"The People in My Class" is an instrument for obtaining perceptions of: (1) social influence in the class, (2) individual competence, and (3) individual contributions to a positive classroom atmosphere. It consists of eight questions which ask students to designate certain peers specifically, if not by name at least by number. Questions 1, 2, and 3 try to get at social influence in the class—i.e., who has the ability to influence what others do in class. Questions 4 and 5 try to elicit perceptions of cooperation with, or hostility toward, the teacher. The remaining items deal with perceived individual competence and one's identification of others.

TOOL 6

Date_____

Your number_____

Class _____

THE PEOPLE IN MY CLASS

It is a job of teachers to find ways to make school life more interesting and worthwhile for all the students in the class. This form is your chance to give the teacher confidential information that will help him to help each pupil. *There are no right or wrong answers.* The way you see things is what counts.

1. Which three persons in this class are most often able to get other pupils to do things? Using your class list, write the numbers of the pupils you select.

Pupil's number

The three who are most often able to get others to do things are: _____ _____ _____

2. Which three persons in the class do the girls most often do things for?

Pupil's number

They are: _____ _____ _____

3. Which three persons in the class do the boys most often do things for?

Pupil's number

They are: _____ _____ _____

4. Which three persons in this class are most cooperative with the teacher and like to do what the teacher wants the class to do?

Pupil's number

The three most cooperative pupils are: _____ _____ _____

5. Which three persons in this class most often *go against* the teacher and what he would like the class to do?

Pupil's number

The three pupils who most often go against the teacher are: _____ _____ _____

6. Which three persons in this class do you think could make the biggest improvement in their schoolwork if they wanted to?

Pupil's number

The three who could improve most are: _____ _____ _____

7. Which three persons in this class do you think show the most ability to learn new things that are taught in school?

Pupil's number

The three best learners are: _____

_____

_____

8. Who would you most like to be if you couldn't be yourself but had to be somebody else in this class?

Pupil's number

Who would you most like to be? _____
Who else would you like to be? _____
Who else would you like to be? _____

(1966a)

The "How They See Me" instrument is different. Instead of asking how an individual views others, it is designed to get at how the individual perceives others' view of himself or herself. Specifically, it asks the person to indicate the degree to which significant others would regard him or her positively or negatively. Although the instrument as originally devised taps one's perceptions of those outside the classroom peer group, it could easily be adapted totally to the classroom by inserting specific names in the repeated question, "Which circle do you think _____ (name) would choose to describe you?"

Not only is a student influenced by perceptions of how he or she is regarded by specific peers but also by group pressures to conform to certain norms. For example, in some classrooms, students believe that they will be ridiculed by their peer group for volunteering an answer to a teacher's question. This may, or may not, be the case. An instrument that enables both the teacher and the students to check out whether a certain norm applies is called "How This Class Feels." It consists of items that elicit the students' perceptions of classroom norms. By having the student respond to the items a second time according to how he or she feels, one can get an individual's actual position on perceived norms. As this latter information is shared with the class, it may be discovered that what students believed to be the will of the majority proved not to be the case at all.

In suggesting ways to diagnose the classroom peer group, Bob Fox was interested in direct observation of behavior as well as students' reports of their perceptions. However, most of the classroom observation instruments he dealt with focus on teacher-student interactions rather than on student-student interactions. In the next section, therefore, we shall provide an example of an observation instrument created by Bob and his colleagues.

TOOL 19

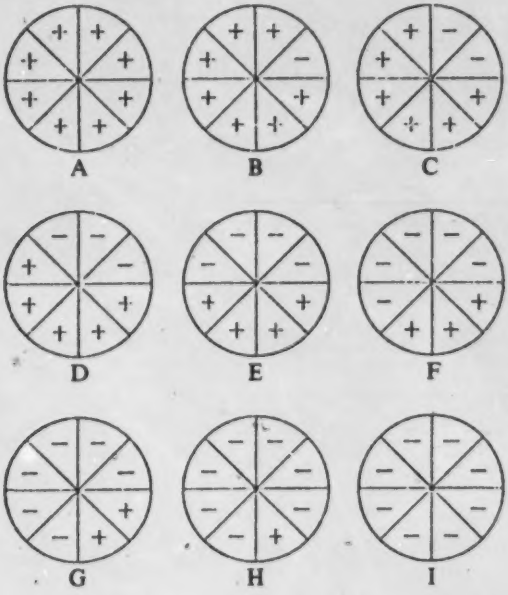
Date_____

Your number_____

Class_____

HOW THEY SEE ME

Just as each part of the day is filled with positive, neutral, and negative things, each person is made up of things we like and things we do not like so much. Below are a number of circles showing persons with different amounts of positive (+) and negative (–) things about them. Which of these circles comes closest to the way you see yourself? Write the letter of the circle which most resembles you right here: _____



In the blank following each question, write the letter of the circle that you think each of the persons mentioned would pick for you.

1. Which circle do you think your closest friend would choose to decribe you? _____
2. Which circle would the teacher in this class choose? _____

(1966a)

TOOL 7

Date _____

Your number _____

Class _____

HOW THIS CLASS FEELS

School classes are quite different from one another in how pupils think and feel about schoolwork, about one another, and about teachers. How do you think your classmates feel about the following things? Put a check in one of the boxes under "How Many Feel This Way?" for each of the statements below. *There are no right or wrong answers.*

	How Many Feel This Way?				
	Almost all	Many	About half	Some	Only a few
1. It is good to take part as much as possible in classroom work					
2. Asking the teacher for help is a good thing to do					
3. It is good to help other pupils with their schoolwork except during tests					
4. Schoolwork is more often fun than it is not fun					
5. Our teacher really understands how pupils feel					

(1966a, p. 42)

Theme No. 4: *Diagnosing the Teacher*

Bob Fox was very much concerned with teacher-student interactions. He was committed to improving the interpersonal atmosphere of classrooms and

hence helped devise a number of tools to assess teacher behavior in the classroom.

One instrument, called "Classroom Observation Schedule," enables an observer to classify classroom interaction "by its origin and direction: teacher to the whole class; teacher to individual pupils; and pupils to the teacher." (1966a, p. 54)

TOOL 11

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Teacher or Class_____ Date_____ Time_____

I. *Teacher to Whole Class*

A. *Work*

1. Giving information	2. Giving directions	3. Asking; probing
⧺ III	II	I

B. *Social Behavior and Social Control*

1. Positive	2. Neutral	3. Negative
	II	I

II. *Teacher to Individual Pupils*

A. *Work*

1. Positive	2. Neutral	3. Negative
OO	OOOOX XXOO OOO	XO

B. *Social Behavior and Social Control*

1. Positive	2. Neutral	3. Negative
	X	XX

III. *Pupils to Teacher*

A. *Work*

1. Contributions	2. Dependent
OXO	OOOOXX XXXOXO O

B. *Social Behavior and Social Control*

1. Complaints	2. Attention seeking
X	X

(1966a, p. 56)

Three markings are used to code behavior during one five-minute interval in the classroom:

1 = unit of teacher behavior directed to the entire class;

0 = unit of behavior to or from a girl;

X = unit of behavior to or from a boy.

For each five-minute interval observed, a separate copy of the instrument is used.

Somewhat different is the tool, "Pupil Perceptions of a Class Period." It is used by students immediately after a class period, rather than by an observer during the class period. Thus it aids reflection about what went on but does not give a record of direct observations. For example, one item asks, "During the last class hour my teacher told or asked me things or answered my questions:

a._____much more than to most other pupils;
b._____a little more than to most other pupils;
c._____a little less than to most other pupils;
d._____much less than to most other pupils."

(1966a, p. 53)

In addition to instruments which *others* use to assess or record teacher behavior are those which a teacher may use for *self-diagnosis*. Two such instruments are "Self-Conception of Own Role Performance" and "Self-Conception of Own Role (Teacher)." The first elicits open-ended responses to the statement "As a teacher, I do the following things." After answering by short descriptive phrases, the teacher evaluates each thing positively or negatively. As Bob and his colleagues point out:

INSTRUMENT #4

SELF-CONCEPTION OF OWN ROLE PERFORMANCE

All of us have certain things about our role performance which we think are important. There are ten numbered blanks on the page below. In the blanks, please write ten adjectives or short descriptive phrases, each referring to the simple statement, *"As a teacher, I do the following things."* Answer as if you were giving the answers to yourself, not to somebody else. Write the answers in the order that they occur to you. We are interested in both positive and negative aspects. Do not worry about logic but try to be as clear as possible. Write each descriptive word or phrase as rapidly as possible. Your first impressions are good enough.

AS A TEACHER, I DO THE FOLLOWING THINGS:

1. _____ ___
2. _____ ___
3. _____ ___
4. _____ ___

5. _____ ___

6. _____ ___

7. _____ ___

8. _____ ___

9. _____ ___

10. _____ ___

Now go back and evaluate each of these things according to how positive or negative you see it. In order to represent a range, place double plus (++) if you feel the characteristic is *quite positive*, a (+) single plus if you see it as *somewhat positive*, a single minus (-) if you see it as *somewhat negative*, and a double minus (--) if you see the thing as *quite negative*. Be sure to evaluate each descriptive word or phrase by placing one of these sign configurations on the small line to the right of each. Remember there are four such signs, (++), (+), (-), and (--). Work rapidly. (1973a, p. 39)

> A balanced evaluation of the self as a professional role-taker seems most healthy for effective role performance. Teachers who view themselves quite negatively and are insecure about what they are doing, for instance, will feel more aggressive and negative then teachers with more positive role concepts. Conversely, those teachers who view themselves as only doing very positive and effective things are not very likely to seek out innovations to improve their classroom instruction. (1973a, pp. 39-40)

The second instrument, "Self-Conception of Own Role (Teacher)," asks teachers to rank order several characteristics according to how often they do each one. Both of these instruments can be adapted to broader usage. For example, the teacher could fill out either instrument twice: first, as he or she actually performs the role, and second, as he or she believes that others expect one to perform the role. A discrepancy between the two suggests some problem to be dealt with.

Consider the parallels between this discussion of a teacher's self-diagnosis and the earlier material in this chapter on the individual learner's self-concept. The only differences in the two are: one, the focus for teachers is on role, not self; and two, teachers usually draw implications from their own responses rather than have someone else interpret results for them.

In the next section we shall discuss instruments for assessing relationships in the faculty peer group. This group is to teachers what the classroom peer group is to students.

SELF-CONCEPTION OF OWN ROLE (TEACHER)

Rank the following seven items in accord with how often you perform each in your role. Place a "1" by the most frequently performed item, a "2" by the second most frequently performed, and so on down to "7", which will be the least frequently performed item.

Rank	*Item*
_____	Communicate with students as a group.
_____	Work with students as individuals or sub-groups.
_____	Broaden myself by continuing formal education, reading current journals, attending workshops, participating in training programs, etc.
_____	Do study and research in my specialized field.
_____	Take part in community affairs concerned with education.
_____	Work on the "administrative" aspect of teaching.
_____	Try out new teaching techniques and methods.

(1973a, p. 41)

Theme No. 5: *Diagnosing the Faculty Peer Group*

Relationships among teachers, between teachers and counselors, and between teachers and other school staff members are primarily role relationships—that is, they relate to each other in terms of certain responsibilities, rights, and duties. In Bob Fox's thinking:

> Two central issues concerning roles and functional patterns are present in schools. Problems of inadequate communication and ineffective group functioning can arise when these two issues are not dealt with effectively.
>
> (1) Conflict between persons or within the organization arises when the definition of one's own role responsibilities is in opposition to or at least different from, the ways in which others look upon that same role . . . .
>
> (2) Because the school is a complex network of relationships, the ways in which others perform their roles affect one's performance of his own role . . . .
>
> (1973a, pp. 34-35)

The instruments discussed in this section of the chapter are designed to obtain information that will help a faculty peer group work through some of

the problems that arise in connection with the two issues Bob raised. "Expectations for Others" is a tool for finding out how teachers and staff expect each other to perform their roles. It is an open-ended instrument that tries to get at the distinction between what one expects of others and what one actually observes them doing.

EXPECTATIONS FOR OTHERS

As a _____ , I expect persons holding the role of _____ to spend most of their time doing:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

I believe that persons holding that role actually spend their time doing the following:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

The kinds of help I would like to receive from persons holding that role are:

1.

2.

(1973a, p. 45)

Just as students in a classroom are affected by peer group norms so are faculty members in a school. An instrument that helps teachers articulate what they perceive to be the norms of the faculty peer group is called "Do's and Don'ts." It consists of 27 items to which one responds "Should" or "Should not."

DO'S AND DON'TS

In any school system, there are informal "do's and don'ts." They are rarely written down anywhere, but they serve as a kind of code, making it clear what people in the system should and should not do if they are to be accepted by others.

Below, there is a list of specific things that a person—an administrator, a teacher, a staff member—might do or say. We would like you to estimate what most people in this building would feel about each item. That is, we want you to tell us whether the *predominant* feeling of most of the people in this building is that one *should* or *should not* do or say the thing in question. You can indicate your answer by placing a check mark (✓) in the appropriate column—should or should not—beside each item.

For example:

The *majority* of people would feel that one . . .

	SHOULD	SHOULD NOT
X. Follow administrative directives.	_____	_____
Y. Complain when things are not going right.	_____	_____
Z. Spread rumors.	_____	_____

The above examples would show that you believe that most people feel that one should follow administrative directives, and one should not complain when things are not going right, nor spread rumors.

1. Ask others who seem upset to express their feelings directly.	_____	_____
2. Tell colleagues what you really think of their work.	_____	_____
3. Look for ulterior motives in other people's behavior.	_____	_____
4. Always ask "Why?" when you don't know.	_____	_____
5. Avoid disagreement and conflict whenever possible.	_____	_____
6. Consult with people under you in making decisions that affect them—even minor ones.	_____	_____
7. Question well-established ways of doing things.	_____	_____
8. Be concerned about other people's problems.	_____	_____
9. Only make a decision after everyone's ideas have been fully heard.	_____	_____
10. Disagree with your superior if you happen to know more about the issue than he does.	_____	_____
11. Withhold personal feelings, and stick to the logical merits of the case in any discussion.	_____	_____
12. Push for new ideas, even if they are vague or unusual.	_____	_____
13. Ask others to tell you what they really think of your work.	_____	_____
14. Keep your real thoughts and reactions to yourself, by and large.	_____	_____
15. Trust others not to take advantage of you.	_____	_____
16. Be skeptical about things.	_____	_____
17. Point out other people's mistakes, to improve working effectiveness.	_____	_____
18. Listen to others' ideas, but reserve the decision to yourself.	_____	_____
19. Try out new ways of doing things, even if it's uncertain how they will work out.	_____	_____

20. Stay "cool"—keep your distance from others.	_____	_____
21. Use formal voting as a way of making decisions in small groups.	_____	_____
22. Set up committees which bypass or cut across usual channels or lines of authority.	_____	_____
23. Spend time in meetings on emotional matters which are not strictly germane to the task.	_____	_____
24. Be critical towards unusual or "way out" ideas.	_____	_____
25. Tell other people what they want to hear, rather than what you really think.	_____	_____
26. Stick with familiar ways of doing things in one's work.	_____	_____
27. Trust others to be helpful in difficult situations.	_____	_____

The Do's and Don'ts instrument can also be used to gather a different kind of data. If each staff member fills it out to indicate how he, himself, feels about what is appropriate or good to do, it will be possible to check the *perceived* norms against what people themselves actually think. (A composite score can be obtained by computing the sum of how each of the individual staff members feel.) The same norm questions would be raised, but in the following format:

INSTRUMENT #16

MY OWN POSITION REGARDING

DO'S AND DON'TS

Directions: Please think about how you, yourself, feel about each of the items listed below. Naturally, your feeling will depend on the particular circumstances involved. But try to consider how you typically feel in most situations. To indicate your answer, place a check (✓) in the column that shows your own attitude. For instance, regarding the first item, if you feel that one should not ask others who seem upset to express their feelings directly, check in the second column, "I feel that one *should not*." Think only about your own feelings.

(1973a, pp. 67-69)

As with other diagnostic measures illustrated in this chapter, the "Do's and Don'ts" instrument can be adapted to other uses. For example, it may be filled out first according to how one perceives most people on the staff supporting norms. Then it may be filled out according to how the individual

himself or herself believes. If a comparison of faculty members' responses reveals discrepancies in perceptions, the phenomenon of *pluralistic ignorance* may be operating. This is the situation in which one believes that everyone else holds certain values or standards when in fact such is not the case.

One final instrument to be discussed in the "Have You Tried It?" tool. It is a way of monitoring whether one has tried out certain innovative teaching practices. It is included under the theme of diagnosing the faculty peer group for two reasons. First, it includes a section on the "number of teachers in my building who have tried it," thereby causing teachers to identify certain resource persons among their peers. Second, it illustrates very well how diagnosis may itself function as an intervention. For example, if teachers are asked to check off those innovative teaching practices they have tried, their responses may be used to motivate them to try out some new ideas. This is consistent with Bob's belief, discussed early in the chapter, that diagnosis should be viewed as one part of a problem-solving process that includes action-taking.

INSTRUMENT #20

HAVE YOU TRIED IT?

Here is a list of some new or unusual classroom teaching practices. For each practice, proceed as follows:

1. If you have not heard of this practice, circle "No" in the first column and skip to the next practice.
2. If you have heard of this practice, circle "Yes," and check each of the columns across that apply to you and leave the rest blank.
3. Fill in the last column with the number of teachers in your building that you know have tried the practice. Put zero if nobody has.

	Have heard of it	Have considered trying it	Have tried it but do not use it regularly	Am using it regularly	Number of teachers in my building who have tried it
1. Student participation in curriculum planning.	No Yes				
2. Student participation in classroom planning.	No Yes				

3. Having students work in small learning teams.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Role playing (acting out situations).	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Use of game to aid learning.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Student reactions to classroom climate via questionnaires.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Student participation in developing classroom rules.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Group discussion of problem behavior.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Involving student in community projects.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Curriculum units that promote skill in interpersonal relationships.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. Community pool (utilizing local citizens as resource personnel).	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. Students as helpers or tutors of other pupils.	No Yes	_____	_____	_____	_____

(1973a, pp. 90–91)

In summary, Bob Fox perceived the value of accurate diagnosis in contributing to humaneness in education. He acted on this perception by involving himself in the creation of tools for obtaining data about seldom analyzed aspects of school life: classroom norms, teachers' expectations for their own role performance, student perceptions of each other, etc. He believed firmly that:

> Collaboration of those from whom data are gathered is necessary when using [the various] instruments. They know why they are supplying information, are looking foward to seeing what the data show, and to being involved in exploring possible implications for change.
>
> (1973a, p. x)

Thus the precision of good social scientific investigation is added to the goals of attaining humaneness in the life of the school in its everyday functioning.

V

Educational Leadership: Creating and Facilitating the Conditions and Processes of Human Education

In other chapters we have dealt with Bob's conceptions and proposals about the educational leadership of the teacher in the classroom, and the leadership functions involved in curriculum development and inservice training or the professional development of the staff. In this chapter we want to summarize and analyze some of Bob's ideas about the leadership functions of the educational administrator, with particular reference to his beliefs about the responsibilities for leadership in school-community relations, and leadership of the teaching staff as a decision-making, planning, and action-taking team. We also want to look briefly at Bob's insights about the complementary functions of task and process leadership.

Theme No. 1: *Leadership in the Educational Community*

In 1954 Bob wrote:

> Every identifiable community is a basic unit for democratic processes and should have a school. The school is important in developing better community life. In community needs the affective school program has its foundation, and it makes full use of community resources.
>
> (May 1954)

In this important observation Bob was pointing to the value to the community of using the school as a resource as well as the value to the school of using the resources of the community. He points with optimism to the increasing examples of school-community collaboration as he has observed them in rural and county and small community school systems.

In 1973 he is writing about a situation of increasing tension rather than improved relations between schools and communities. He and his colleagues write:

> The pace of change is accelerating, although the population explosion of the 60's has all but died away, over-crowded school buildings persist. They

> remain a national and pervasive hindrance to quality education. Yet bond issues are voted down with regularity, property owners resist the financial burden of constructing and improving local plants, and legislators struggle to work out programs that more equitably distribute the staggering costs of education today . . . .
>
> Faced with such a bewildering set of changes and circumstances, parents tend to feel pushed, or dragged, along. They develop grievances, often of an inflammatory nature, about many of these issues. Often, they do not hear about a current event of importance, let alone understand it. They are concerned and frustrated, because the existing structures neither facilitate understanding and participation, nor provide an outlet for the expression of their feelings . . . .
>
> Despite the weighty evidence favoring community involvement, many educators have not yet translated its implications into action. In fact, there is a good deal of traditional resistance to the idea of "laymen meddling in education." The reasons are often rooted in feelings that are not always recognized or examined. One such feeling, for example, is that people without a background in education cannot understand the educational process and should leave the busines to professionals. Fortunately, a growing number of educational administrators today feel less threatened by community "invaders" than was the case a decade ago. But where the atmosphere still is tinged with suspicion, it is difficult to establish the mutally respectful climate needed for healthy and effective communication. (1973a, pp. 107-10)

Bob became increasingly concerned about the typical school administrator's lack of an image of himself as a leader of a community organization (the school system) which had high interdependence and needed close collaboration with many other agencies in the community involved in the rearing and education and socialization of the young. He became increasingly involved in the importance of the concept of "the socialization community" and "the educational community."

In 1973 Bob and two colleagues wrote:

> This total process of raising the young—of influencing their values, knowledges and behaviors in such a way as to benefit themselves and society—is the responsibility of the socializing community. Most typically we think of a community in terms other than socialization. We think of its economic functions—the economic community—or we think of it as a community located in a given physical ecology of buildings, transportation, and communication systems. It is just as valid to think of the educational or socialization functions of the community in terms of a socializing or educational community.

> The institutions, the agencies, and the individuals that frequently interact with the young in many local communities are the key processors of influence which make up the socializing community. Each of these institutions or agencies has some type of program, more or less planned and publicly articulated, to affect the socialization of the young. Such agencies serve as the link between the interests and needs of society and the actual learning activities of the young. These clusters of institutions and agencies can be classified according to their particular areas of concern. (1976e), pp. 7-8)

What are these child-rearing and child-educating organizations of which the school system is just one? Bob and his colleagues identified them as follows:

1. The public and private educational agencies from preschool through the community college and other levels of higher learning, including technical and specialized educational programs.
2. The churches with their emphasis on values education and some involvement in such other programs as drug education, sex education, family life preparation, and so forth.
3. The youth-serving recreational agencies, which are a large cluster of socializing agencies emphasizing recreational, cultural, and character education programs. Many of them attempt to provide an orientation to citizen roles and family life functions as well as personal growth and development and the learning of recreational skills.
4. The legal enforcement and protection agencies, which include the police juvenile bureaus, juvenile courts, traffic safety agents, school truant officers, and so forth. All these agencies are responsible for defining behavioral deviancy in terms of legal codes and exerting sanctions to prevent or correct deviant behavior.
5. The therapeutic, rehabilitative, and resocialization services. This is a cluster of agencies and remedial specialists who work with those who have fallen behind in various learning activities, or are deprived or handicapped and require more intense and specialized social and educational opportunities.
6. The employers and work supervisors of the young. This is a wide variety of agencies, organizations, and businesses which employ the young or provide various kinds of occupational training, placement, and supervision.
7. The political socializers, who are to a large degree lacking in the American community where very little responsibility has been delegated for the socializing of the young into political roles. In recent years there have been more opportunities for the young to be involved in cause groups and community improvement groups which have provided opportunities for political education.

8. The parents, who have a major responsibility delegated to them for the education and socialization of the young. Most of them, however, have received very little professional training for these role functions.

9. Older and like-age peers who provide a major source of influence, although usually without any delegated responsibility or training.

10. The mass media. This is a complex network of TV and radio programs, newspapers, and periodicals addressed to the young at various age levels.

This is the community context in which Bob increasingly felt that school administrators were lacking the training and vision to take leadership and function collaboratively with their peer leaders from the other sectors of the socialization community. To make this leadership responsiblity more concrete, Bob projected what an educational community would be like that was adequately supportive of the humane school:

> Collaboration within the socializing community means active collaboration of the school administrator and the school system with the other community leaders and organizations that have responsibility for working with the young. . . . This implies continuous efforts of the community to involve all the uninvolved; the total community must achieve enough coordination to provide an adequate and consistent program of opportunities for the young to learn and to grow into productive roles in the community.

Here are some brief glimpses of how the humanizing school might take the lead in securing the involvement and collaboration among the various individuals and groups concerned with the educational program:

The Community Educational Leadership Council and Seminar was originally initiated by the school superintendent. It is a continuing group with an elected chairman. A nomination procedure has identified the key policy leaders of the community within the various child and youth socialization segments. This group reviews new research about youth, examines programs, policies and youth development educational activites of the various segments, identifies program overlaps and omissions, and initiates developmental projects. A social scientist from the nearby university serves as a continuing consultant to the council.

The Coordinating Council of the school is composed of elected representatives of the teachers, the students, the parents, the paraprofessionals and the volunteer workers. Students have full voting rights, as do the parents. The principal chairs this group and represents it on the Administrative Council of the school system. The Coordinating Council is the key decision-making mechanism in the building and is very active in planning communication and problem-solving activities involving students and

> teachers, teachers and parents, etc. It is not merely an advisory committee. It has a series of adult task forces working on various development projects. (1973e)

In Chapter 1, as a part of Theme 2, we described a one-day educational community planning conference of the type Bob would hope to see the school administrator giving leadership.

Bob felt that this image of the school administrator as a leader in the educational community context was one of the most important challenges for the preservice and inservice training of school administrators. He believed that exerting creative leadership of this type would represent one of the greatest breakthroughs for the growth and development of education, the improvement of funding support for education, and the mobilization of all community resources for the innovative enrichment of the quality of educational experiences for all pupils and students.

Theme No. 2: *Leadership Within the Building*

A significant inventory of leadership qualities and functions can be found in Chapter 8. There, Bob Fox's former students describe Bob and his leadership functions and how those functions became a model for his students. They also review the reasons why he had such significant impact on them and their professional lives. Bob was continuously working on the improvement of his own leadership role, so the following quote seems quite in line with his orientation:

> School improvement begins with the administrator. This may be in opposition to the concept of many school leaders who are concerned about change—but change for others, such as students, faculty, and staff rather than for themselves. If the administrator is to improve himself, his first task becomes one of identifying his strengths and weaknesses as a climate leader. Such a role is exemplified by the administrator who personifies the school's philosophy, demonstrating by his actions that it is possible to practice what is preached. (1973d, Part II)

It was this orientation that led Bob to give such priority to his inservice workshops and institutes with school administrators, and which led him to emphasize staff team training with the administrator as part of the training team.

In thinking about the leadership role of the principal within the building, Bob and his colleagues write:

> Several leadership functions are important in developing and maintaining a positive school climate. The principal may be expected to perform some of these, but some would be performed by others. The principal, as part of his role, may be expected to see that someone else performs these other

functions. If skills are not found within the staff, the principal is expected to identify and secure the necessary additional resources. . . .

In gross terms, the principal fosters the development of a positive and humane school environment, for in many instances the routine of the school has settled into such a fixed pattern that it absorbs the attention of the school staff and tends to subordinate the broader purposes of education. (1971b)

Bob and his colleagues then go ahead to suggest that the principal has three basic responsibilities which help to define his leadership role within the staff. These responsibilities are defined under the headings of "planner," "organizer," and "mobilizer." Let's review these ideas and see how they organize some of Bob's other writings about the leadership function within the building.

1. The planner function

As Bob clarifies the planner function, it is clear that he sees it as that of helping with the designing of programs and projects for the improvement of the school and its climate, with an orientation toward the future. As we have noted in Chapter 1, Bob felt very strongly that it was important to be oriented in a positive way toward desired educational outcomes rather than to focus on the more depressing and limited process of "analyzing our problems." He was also very clear that the principal did not "do the planning and goal setting." He writes as follows:

The procedure for determining what changes are to be made must involve the teachers. Starting "where the teachers are" is not merely a strategic move on the part of the administrator to achieve more basic, long term objectives which can be visualized. It is the most effective way of bringing about change.

Leadership can serve by making available such resources as may help the staff, clarify objectives, raise questions, become aware of promising practices and possibilities. Leadership can stimulate interest in change by being alert, enthusiastic and well informed. Exploratory questions and problems raised by teachers as possible leads to individual and staff improvement activity may die unproductively if administration does not provide support, does not show genuine interest in the possiblities, and in the efforts of the staff to uncover creative solutions, and in the probability the products of such activity can be feasibly tested in practice. . . . It is clear that the responsibility of leadership for deciding "what changes should be made" is conceived by this writer as primarily a matter of facilitating the process, not one of making the value judgments. But, should leadership take some responsibility for the direction in which the process is moving?

> Certainly! The administrator has much opportunity as a part of the process to exercise leadership of this type. He can help to furnish the keel to the process, to assist in keeping the ship stable and on a general course, although surface winds and current may modify the course temporarily. Such leadership serves to help clarify basic objectives. Are our schools to give each child opportunity to grow to maximum potentiality or are they to serve a selection function—to weed out those who are not intellectually equal to our academic curriculum? Do we wish to encourage differences or to emphasize standardization? Are the schools to serve a rapidly changing society or to conserve the old? . . . This is how the educational leader must help keep all eyes on "the ultimate goal" while assisting with projects which may or may not be moving systematically toward a specific objective which the administrator may have personally thought desirable. (February 1956, pp. 15-16)

As always, Bob was concerned that the principal should expand the involvement of others in the goal-setting and planning process and should expose the staff to influences outside of their own personal and professional perspectives. For example, he writes:

> Some elementary staffs have engaged in a survey of their communities, with special attention to child welfare, as part of their planning activity. One staff tried a comprehensive "opinionnaire" regarding perceptions of given practices and needed changes within that school. Outside resource people may be helpful in suggesting new approaches, raising issues, or pointing out possible development areas. Perhaps a theme for the year would be useful, during which time all staff members would examine intensively the program of the school in that particular area.
>
> Parents may be very helpful in moving us out of ruts, especially if many opportunities are provided for parents to join with teachers in thinking about basic problems and needs confronting the school. Each group may challenge the other. (February 1953, pp. 17-19)

Bob was very enthusiastic about his collaboration in the development of the goal-setting and planning method. This procedure was described at the end of Chapter 1.

2. The organizer

As Bob describes this function he says,

> The organizer is one who assumes responsibility for seeing that interdependent parts of the whole system complement and support each other. (March 1958, pp. 334-335)

Bob always felt that one of the greatest weaknesses of organizing and getting things done in the school building was the lack of skills in conducting effective meetings. As he observes in one of his writings:

> Faculty meetings seldom seem to get down to basic issues. Members of curriculum committees exchange their "gripes" or their problems, but seldom get into action. . . . It may be that our questions should center not around the desirability of staff participation but rather on the need to improve the means by which we do it. (1958)

Bob initiated a number of ways of improving committee and staff meetings. He introduced a variety of tools for having "stop sessions" in the middle of meetings to help the members look at ways they might improve their productivity, and he introduced a variety of "end of meeting" feedback tools which the principal or chairperson could use to get the reactions of the members of the meeting and to elicit ideas for the improvement of the next session. Several of these tools are included at the end of this chapter.

Bob was also very clear that the readiness to be involved in implementing plans was highly related to the degree to which teachers actually had an opportunity to share in the power of decision making and planning. In reflecting on the outcomes of some of the research of his team, he comments,

> Our research suggests that when teachers as a group feel powerless, isolated, uninvolved, and dissatisfied with their roles, they are not likely to instigate change. Indeed we have found that teachers who feel that their colleagues have little influence on school policies are themselves unlikely to begin or support activities leading to classroom improvement.
>
> Our data indicate that teachers need to feel involved and potent in the staff group in order to support educational change; they must know that they have the backing of their fellow teachers and their administrators if they are to be willing to try new ideas. These findings make sense. Since change may involve public attention and risk, teachers who feel that they do not have the backing of their colleagues are less likely to go out on a limb than more secure teachers. (1967, pp. 25-26)

Bob was very clear that the principal had the leadership responsibility and potentiality for creating the climate of mutual influence and communication which would make it possible to develop the organized effort and committed motivation to implement goals and plans.

3. The mobilizer function

Bob defines this function as: "the mobilizer is one who utilizes resources, both human and fiscal, to get things done. The principal is the only one in today's schools who can initiate much of this process."

This function includes not only the mobilizing of resources, but the evaluation and follow-through to insure accountability, and the continuing effort at professional development that insures that staff resources will continually be enhanced.

As Bob describes his model for the mobilization of resources to get work done, he writes that under the leadership of an effective school administrator:

> Effective liaison has been established with other professionals— professional subject teachers, counselors, visiting teachers, pupil-personnel staff members, and the like. They are considered part of the teaching team and maintain open and easy communication with classroom teachers. Paraprofessionals and volunteers are also included as part of the teaching team, supervising field trips, helping with instructional and classroom activities, and gathering resource materials.
>
> There is effective linkage between the school and the resource pool outside the school system—the university, the regional educational laboratory, the educational and service divisions of business and industrial enterprises. Consultants from these agencies are usually used for a sequence of activities, and are often involved in continuing inside-outside teacher relationships. Some specialists in the community are also trained to give special instructions in limited areas; for example, supervisors of cooperative work experiences in businesses and industry, or police or doctors, as socializing agents concerned with the education of the young. It has been found that while many of these people do not require payment for their services, they are motivated at a higher level when modest stipends are found for their time spent in special training which the school offers to help them perform their educational roles more effectively.
>
> Voluntary person power from the private sector is recruited, trained, and used. A semi-yearly survey of parents is conducted to uncover special talents and interests that might be useful in the learning program of the school. These available talents are compiled in a resource directory which also includes potential contributions of pupil-peers, older pupils, teachers, and other community members.
>
> Pupils themselves are considered to be major human resources for learning. Every effort is made to facilitate their taking initiative in defining their own learning needs, in setting learning goals, and identifying and obtaining resources, and in securing evidence of growth. Older children have teaching opportunities each week in relation to younger children.
>
> And finally the principal ensures that there is a mechanism for identifying, evaluating, and sharing classroom teaching inventions and innovations within the system. (1973e, pp. 32-34)

In emphasizing the importance of mobilizing continuous evaluation to guide and revise the goals, Bob writes,

> The principal organizes and leads a yearly evaluation and planning conference to review educational goals and progress toward these goals. Students, parents and administrators help review the data obtained and explore ideas for improvement. A different perspective of the school system is added by annually inviting a visiting team from the outside to review the program and to make observations and suggestions.
>
> Thus there are frequent opportunities for all participants to present their reactions to programs and priorities, and to make suggestions. . . . The evaluation and feedback of data takes place as rapidly as possible, using mark-sensed cards, computer data processing, and other techniques. The sooner those who participate in the evaluation effort are given the results, the more positive the whole concept of evaluation will be. Whatever method is used, the evaluation procedures must be constructive rather than destructive. Results, whether positive or negative, should stimulate thoughtful reaction among the participants and development of program implications; evaluation should bring growth toward goals rather than stagnation or fear of failure. (1973e, pp. 34-35)

Bob's emphasis on the principal's responsibility for giving leadership to a continuous process of staff development by including himself, is developed in Chapter 7.

Theme No. 3: *The Balance of Task and Process Leadership*

In the final years of his work Bob gave increasing priority to attempting to get teachers and administrators to understand and to apply two basic understandings. One was the understanding about the strong relationship between human relationships and productive learning in the classroom, where the evidence was so clear that a good or poor interpersonal relationship in the classroom for the student was highly related to whether or not he or she would have the energy and motivation to utilize his or her capacities effectively in learning activities. The other application of the same principle was the understanding that committees and faculties and groups of all kinds could not function productively in making decisions and doing other work if there were dysfunctional social processes going on in the group. He was very concerned that school administrators did not seem to be aware of the importance of paying attention to the process aspects of their leadership role and therefore presided over many very ineffective, time-wasting, group activities. He formulated this understanding in the following way:

> At meetings, staff members may influence one another in different ways, but two sets of group functions—task and maintenance—are necessary for

an effective staff meeting. Task functions apply to completing the work requirements of the meeting, while maintenance functions help the group with its internal cohesion and interpersonal feelings.

Ideally, most staff members no matter what their role, would be capable of performing both task and maintenance functions. Unfortunately, only a few persons perform task functions and even fewer perform maintenance functions. Examples of some task functions are: initiating ideas on work procedures, seeking information or opinions from others, giving information or opinions, summarizing what has gone on in the meeting. Some maintenance functions, on the other hand, would be seeing that others have a chance to speak, attempting to reconcile disagreements, sensing group mood, and being warm and responsive to others. (1973a, pp. 36-37)

Bob felt it was the responsibility of the administrator-leader to be sensitive to these functions and to help his staff become sensitive and skillful in performing these functions in order to do effective group work together.

To emphasize the importance of training the staff in the neglected area of process skills, Bob published an interview with the principal and staff members of one of his client schools where he had helped the staff experience together a workshop focused on learning the maintenance or process skills necessary to do effective task work. Here are excerpts from that published interview:

First teacher: "Yes, in our weekend session we had a chance to look at the role of the principal and to find out just what kind of a person he is."

Principal: "And as principal, I needed to know where my teachers stood. I don't want to have them all agreeing with me. There is no sense in playing games, having them give an answer that they assume you as principal want. That's the wrong way to function as an efficient and effective staff. I'd like my teachers to say to me, 'You have been talking for 45 minutes, and you are wasting our time,' if that's the way they feel."

Bob Fox: "The way you are talking now makes it sound as if these are some norms you want to legitimize as principal—sharing of feelings, encouraging the staff to challenge your position. What does sensitivity training have to do with that?"

Principal: "I think the kind of sensitivity training we had together has helped me to see the needs for this kind of norm. I don't feel my position is threatened. We understand each other, I hope. We still have a ways to go of course."

Bob: "What else have you done that helped establish a climate in which staff members feel free to express their true feelings?"

Principal: "I have found in working with faculty committees that if you take a few minutes, or even the first couple sessions, for the committees to talk about who each other is, as a person, and what kinds of concerns you are bringing to this committee and the topic you are supposed to be working on, why then we can get to work sooner and more effectively and with less underground distractions. I think a faculty isn't likely to work effectively on group process or maintenance until it has some kind of sensitivity learning experience."

Second Teacher: "I think people need to feel secure. If you feel secure, you can say what you feel and not fear being shot down. Getting away for some sensitivity training provides a special opportunity to do something with our staff that goes beyond what we can do as part of our normal day to day process."

First Teacher: "In my graduate classes I have a chance to see teachers from other districts, and they talk about their building problems and situations. I feel we are really lucky because communication among us seems to be so much better than other buildings that I would never want to leave this group the way we are working together."

Bob Fox: "Can I ask you (the principal) one last question? If a school is going to embark on some kind of a team-building effort, does the principal need to spend time, as you did, going through some process training on his own, or is it enough for him to be a participant with his staff?"

Principal: "That's a good question. I think in order for the principal to give leadership, he may first need to have some idea of what process training really is. My immediate reaction is that if you don't believe in the product, you better not try to sell it to your colleagues. So the principal should have some exposure to process learning first. In my opinion, he should have an in-depth experience in a human relations laboratory or a T-group of some type. (May 1971, pp. 70-74)

In Chapter 6, which focuses on Bob's approach to professional staff development, you will find an illustration of a faculty-laboratory experience which focuses on staff team building—an interesting mixture of working on processs skills and on task work and finding ways to interrelate these two kinds of work to improve staff productivity in doing their planning and decision making in order to provide quality education experiences for students.

Two Illustrative Tools

The two sample tools which follow are of the type which Bob developed and utilized as he worked with staff groups and as he helped school administrators to develop their leadership role. The first tool is an example of what he

and his colleagues called a "stop session tool" to be used during the course of a meeting to make a check on "what was going on" and how the process of the meeting could be improved to get higher productivity. The second tool is an example of a feedback technique the leader of the meeting can use to get assessment at the end of a meeting in order to improve the planning and execution of the next meeting.

The experience of many committees and faculty meetings confirms the critical value of tools like this for improving the effectiveness of staff work, and supporting the role of the leader in helping the group develop sensitivity to the integrating task and maintenance functions.

Example No. 1

Quick Check on How We're Doing

To improve the productivity of our work together in this meeting, please take a moment now to respond to the two inquiries below, and then share the data with each other and share ideas for improvement.

1. Inquiry #1: How do you feel about the way your ideas have been listened to and used so far? (please check)

Very Pleased	Quite Pleased	Somewhat Displeased	Very Displeased

Please jot any comments on why you checked where you did:

2. Inquiry #2: How productively do you feel the group has been working during the past 15-30 minutes?

Very Productively	Quite Productively	Somewhat Productively	Not Productively

Please comment on why you checked where you did:

As soon as your group members have finished checking and jotting please share your data and respond to this question: "As consultants to yourselves what recommendations do you have for ways to improve the productivity of the rest of the meeting? Now please try to use your recommendations.

Example No. 2

Reviewing Our Productivity and Process

In order to improve future meetings please take a few minutes to summarize your observations and evaluations of the one we have just held.

1. What is your judgment of the quality of the products of this meeting (e.g., decisions, plans, ideas generated, and so forth).

Excellent Quality	Quite Good Quality	Just Fair Quality	Low Quality

Please comment on reasons for your judgment.

2. What is your judgment about the quality of the group process of this meeting (e.g., openness of communication, listening, work procedures, and so forth)?

Excellent Process	Quite Good Process	Somewhat Inadequate Process	Very Poor Process

Please comment on reasons for your judgment.

3. What suggestions do you have for the leader on what she / he might do to improve the next meeting?

4. What might you do to contribute to the improvement?

VI

Improving Education Through Developing, Discovering, Evaluating, Adapting, and Spreading Innovations

Bob Fox was basically an optimist with great faith in the desire of teachers to do a good job with children and to improve their competence as professional educators. He believed that most teachers, in the course of their daily teaching, invented or adapted significant teaching techniques and materials. These represented a great resource if they could only be shared with other teachers. Therefore it was with great enthusiasm that he took leadership in initiating a series of research activities focused on identifying this grassroots inventiveness and finding ways of disseminating these social inventions to spread high quality educational practices. A number of "confrontation-surprises" emerged for Bob during the course of these studies, which characteristically led him to become inventive as he worked through the implications of the findings with his colleagues. We have attempted to follow the sequence of the development of Bob's discoveries and thinking in this chapter.

Theme No. 1: *Identifying the Inventions and Inventors*

Working with a committee of teachers and administrators in each of four school systems, Bob Fox and his team distributed an inquiry sheet to each of the 500 teachers. The covering memo described and illustrated the idea of "everyone being an inventor" in trying out some new ideas or adapting the ideas of someone else in their daily classroom practice. The questionnaire sheet asked the following questions.

1. Please describe briefly the teaching practice you can share with us.
2. What resources did you use in developing this idea?
3. What goals were you working toward with this practice?
4. What happened while you were first trying out the new practice?
5. From your point of view how successful was the practice in terms of your own evaluation of effectiveness?

6. Did some aspects work less well than others?
7. What pitfalls should a teacher be careful to avoid?

Teachers were invited either to nominate a practice which they personally were using, or a practice they knew about that somebody else had developed and was using.

Two hundred ten practices were returned, almost all of them self-nominations by the respondents. Further probing indicated that teachers knew very little about what their colleagues were doing that might be of interest.

As he read the returns Bob was very enthusiastic about the number of ideas which were being shared, but rather puzzled and chagrined by what seemed to him to be the very inadequate concepts and procedures underlying many of the described practices. He said with a wry smile several times, "These may be inventions all right, but I guess it would be better if they didn't spread beyond the inventor."

Theme No. 2: *Assessing the Quality and Relevance of the Innovations*

Reviewing 200 descriptions of classroom practices was a challenging problem. Bob convened the members of the project steering committee, composed of social scientists and members of the Michigan Department of Classroom Teachers, and several school administrators and curriculum directors. The committee developed four guidelines for the review of the nominated practices:

1. Select those teaching ideas which are truly new and different, eliminating those practices which are probably already used by a large majority of teachers.
2. Select those teaching practices which are designed to cope with relatively universal classroom problems.
3. Select those practices which are most adequately developed and seem to demonstrate the greatest potential for accomplishing the stated purpose of the practice.
4. Give priority to those innovative teaching ideas which attempt to enhance student's motivations for learning and/or to improve the classroom's emotional climate.

A more extensive discussion of selection criteria resulted in the development of a series of rating scales to be used in the assessment of each practice. We have reproduced these rating scales for you on the following pages.

Teams of four or five raters than rated a set of the practices. Each rating team included classroom teachers, administrators, educational psychologists, and research social scientists. As we neared the end of this process Bob remarked one day, "This is a great procedure but I think we forgot something. We should have added students and parents to the teams." This is a good example of Bob's continuous concern for "who's missing that ought to be here because they will be affected by the decision."

Bob was very enthusiastic about the result of the rating process. He observed that the discussions were a tremendous inservice training process for the participants, as they shifted from typically intuitive judgments of what is good and bad teaching to more systematic analysis and more critical review of why something is an effective or ineffective practice.

The review committees selected 30 of the more than 200 practices as most worthy of distribution to all elementary and secondary classroom teachers.

Rating Scale for Evaluation of a Practice

Criteria dealing with soundness of the practice:

1. Does the practice appear soundly based in theory or research evidence?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
2. Is there evidence available from teacher or staff evaluation regarding the effectiveness of the practice?	1 2 3 4 5 Yes No

Criteria dealing with potential adaptability and spreadability of the practice:

3. Will it solve the problem, or accomplish an important purpose (from the viewpoint of the teacher)?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
4. Is the practice easily adaptable to a teacher's own style of teaching?	1 2 3 4 5 No Yes
5. Does the practice require a great investment of time or energy?	1 2 3 4 5 Yes No
6. Does the practice require special demonstrations or training?	1 2 3 4 5 Yes No
7. Can the practice be tried on a limited basis?	1 2 3 4 5 No Yes
8. Can details of the practice be communicated easily?	1 2 3 4 5 No Yes
9. Does the practice require special physical equipment or props?	1 2 3 4 5 Yes No

10.	Will the practice be acceptable to administrators (principals, curriculum leadership personnel, superintendents)?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
11.	Does the practice take into account pupil differences (e.g., age, sex, social class)?	1 2 3 4 5 No Yes
12.	Is the practice dependent upon gaining the cooperation of other teachers?	1 2 3 4 5 Dependent Not dependent
13.	Does the practice fit easily into the "accepted" curriculum?	1 2 3 4 5 No Yes
14.	Does the practice offer the potential of positive feedback (visible success)?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High

Criteria having to do with the significance of the practice for a specific program goal (in this case, enhancing pupil motivation for learning and improving classroom socio-emotional climate)?

15.	Does the practice help pupils to discover and use the academic skills of others in the class?	1 2 3 4 5 No Yes
16.	Does the practice increase individual pupil responsibility and motivation for learning?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
17.	Does the practice involve pupils in planning, executing, and evaluating it?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
18.	Does the practice enhance development of peer relations and standards in support of learning?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
19.	Does the practice contribute to pupils' positive attitudes toward school work?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High

20.	Does the practice significantly contribute to pupils' feelings of self worth?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
21.	Does the practice significantly contribute to supportive peer relations and standards conducive to mental health?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
22.	Does the practice contribute to a positive pupil-teacher relationship?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High
23.	Does the practice help the group to have a wider variety of friendships?	1 2 3 4 5 Low High

(1973a)

In order to improve the quality of this distribution the 30 innovative teachers were asked to write up fuller descriptions of their practices, using a documentation outline. These were bound together in a looseleaf notebook—Catalog of Promising Classroom Practices.

Again Bob expressed his optimism that the distribution of these catalogues would have an important impact on the quality of teaching in the four school systems.

Theme No. 3: *Disseminating the Selected Practices*

In 1962, writing in the *NEA Journal*, Bob said "Teachers feel personally responsible for what goes on in their classrooms and want to do the best possible job. Most of them are interested in trying out new ideas in their own classrooms. . . ."

But now, in 1965, nearly 500 teachers were receiving descriptions of carefully selected innovative classroom teaching ideas from their colleagues and only 25 percent of them indicated on the return card that they would like more information about one or more of the practices, and less than half of these, about 12 percent, said they thought they probably would try one of the practices in their own classroom. Three-quarters of the teachers who received the catalog did not return the card. They were asked to return it to indicate whether or not they found anything new that might be of interest to them. When a follow-up study was made it was discovered that of the 25 percent of teachers who responded with a postcard indicating some interest, only one in five had tried any of the ideas.

Bob and his colleagues convened several groups of teachers to pool their observations and experiences about what the factors were, with themselves and within their situations, which facilitated and hindered their attempting new ideas or accepting new ideas reported by others. The results of these discussions are summarized in the tabulation on the next page.

As they reviewed this experience it seemed to Bob and his colleagues that it was crucial to experiment in two directions in facilitating innovation. One direction would be to provide face-to-face interaction situations for the communication of innovative practices, where colleagues could actively probe each other and consult with each other on the credibility, the feasibility, and the adaptability of creative teaching practices. The other direction would be to explore the development of colleague teams who would provide the support of joint planning, joint commitment, and joint action.

Forces Relevant to the Facilitation and Hindrance of Innovation and Diffusion of Teaching Practices

Facilitating Forces	Hindering Forces
1. Peer and Authority Relations	
A. Sharing sessions or staff bulletins become a matter of school routine.	A. Little communication among teachers.
B. Public recognition given to innovators and adopters; innovation-diffusion seen as a cooperative task.	B. Competition for prestige teachers.
C. Sharing ideas is expected and rewarded; norms support asking for and giving help; regular talent search for new ideas.	C. Norms enforce privatism.
D. Area team liaison supports new ideas.	D. Colleagues reject ideas.
E. Principal or superintendent supports innovation-diffusion activity.	E. Principal not interested in new ideas.
F. Principal helps create a staff atmosphere of sharing and experimentation.	F. School climate doesn't support experimentation.
G. Staff meetings used as two-way informing and educating sessions.	G. Principal doesn't know what's going on.

H. Teachers influence the sharing process.	H. Teacher ideas don't matter.
I. Inservice training program gives skills needed to innovate and adapt.	I. No continuing education program for staff.

2. Personal Attitudes

A. Seeking new ways.	A. Resistance to change.
B. Seeking peer and consultant help.	B. Fear of evaluation and rejection or failure.
C. Always open to adapting and modifying practices.	C. Dogmatism about already knowing about new practices.
D. Public rewards for professional growth.	D. Professional growth not important.
E. See groups as endemic and relevant for academic learning.	E. Negative feelings about group work.
F. Understand connection between mental health and academic learning.	F. Mental health is "extra."
G. Optimism.	G. Pessimism.
H. Test ideas slowly.	H. Afraid to experiment.
I. Suiting and changing practice to fit one's own style and class.	I. Resistance to imitating others.

3. Characteristics of the Practice

A. Relevant to universal student problems.	A. Does not meet the needs of a class.
B. Can be done a little at a time.	B. Requires a lot of energy.

C. Consultant and peer help available; needed skills are clearly outlined.	C. Requires new skills.
D. Clearly aids student growth.	D. Requires change in teacher values.
E. A behavioral change with no new gimmicks.	E. Requires new facilities.
F. Built in evaluation to see progress.	F. Won't work.
G. Innovation has tried a new twist.	G. Not new.
H. Student, not subject, oriented.	H. Not for my grade level or subject.
I. No social practice can be duplicated exactly.	I. Effectiveness reduced if practice gains general use.
4. Physical and Temporal Arrangements	
A. Staff meetings used for professional growth; substitutes hired to free teacher (s) to visit other classrooms; lunchtime used for discussions; students sent home for an afternoon so teachers can all meet together.	A. No time to get together.
B. Extra clerical help provided.	B. Too many clerical duties to have time to share ideas.
C. Staff meetings for everyone to get together occasionally; grade level or departmental meetings.	C. Classrooms are isolated.
D. Meetings held in classrooms.	D. No rooms to meet in.

(1973c)

Theme No. 4: *Face-to-Face Exchange of Innovative Practices*

One of Bob's most important innovations in professional education, we believe, was his leadership in the development of the "exchange of practices"

design for the sharing and exchange of successful techniques. This procedure has been widely adopted and adapted by his colleagues and many others in the years since 1967. A typical exchange session, as he and his team developed it, goes something like this:

The participants are seated at tables of six, by grade levels from across different buildings, with administrators at a separate table. The idea that all of us are "social inventors" but often tend to be unaware of it and receive no recognition for it, is presented briefly. Then the group participates in two quick brainstorms on the topics:
(1) "Why is it that when we feel we have developed or adapted a procedure or technique that works successfully, we hesitate to share it?" and (2) "Why is it that when we hear somebody down the hall is trying out something new that sounds interesting we hesitate to go and ask about it?" These brainstorms typically generate some 15 to 25 reasons and free up the atmosphere for proposing a norm of freedom of asking and telling in the exchange session which is about to begin.

Then the participants at each table are told that anyone who wishes to may identify briefly, not more than a minute, some teaching invention of theirs which they feel has been successful and which might be of interest to their colleagues. The table group then makes a decision which two or three of these practices they would like to document most fully for sharing with the total workshop. At this point an interview schedule is distributed for all participants to use in probing the teacher they have selected as an informant, and a member of the group is asked to volunteer to record the documentation directly on a ditto master so it can be reproduced immediately. At the administrators' table the same procedure is being used except that the focus is on administrative techniques.

The interview schedule which was used was as follows:

1. What are the purposes of this practice? What are the desired outcomes?
2. What does the practice look like in operation? What is a step-by-step description of the flow of the activity?
3. What materials, facilities, and resources are needed?
4. What skills does the teacher need to be successful?
5. What are the traps to watch out for?
6. How have you evaluated success?
7. Have you tried variations? What adaptations would you suggest from your experience?

Typically, the elicited information is recorded on two ditto masters, and the ditto machine is on the table at the back of the room. Each documentation is duplicated as it is completed and the materials laid out on a "pick up" table for all participants in the institute. The length of the session usually determines the number of practices documented at each table.

In discussing the staff conditions for sharing Bob writes:

> Our research demonstrates that the opportunity for formal and informal associations with colleagues encourages teachers to share their ideas about change. Teachers who serve on committees together or who travel to school together are more likely to know and support each other's innovations than teachers who do not have this kind of association with their fellow workers.
>
> New teachers in a system, fresh from college or advanced training, may enter a school eager to try new ways, only to be blocked by an established culture dominated by older teachers who do not welcome suggestions of new recruits. Under these circumstances, the newcomers soon lose their enthusiam. Similarly, negative evaluations and lack of support from colleagues may hinder any teacher from trying or continuing personal experiments and innovations.
>
> We know that new practices are often adopted only to be abandoned; we need to know what kinds of support are needed if teachers are to be able to maintain and further develop their innovative efforts to improve the classroom learning environment . . . . Our research on change in educational systems points to the importance of the series of interpersonal relationships in the educational process, starting with the pupil's peer group and the teacher-pupil relationships and continuing through faculty relations, teacher-principal relationships, school boards-local school relationships, school board-local professional association relationships, and school-community relationships. For long range and lasting school change all these relationships must support the teacher in the problem solving process, which draws on the latest ideas and findings from sources both inside and outside the school. (May 1967)

Writing in another publication, Bob says,

> It seems clear that creating the conditions for the continuous improvement of the quality of education and the development of social inventions in teaching practice is a mutual responsibility of school administrators, colleagues, the teacher herself, and also the students and their parents. The individual teacher, by herself, cannot be expected to utilize curriculum and behavioral science resources creatively in an optimal way as she carries out her mission of developing high quality educational experiences for children.

Returning to a typical Bob Fox posture, he continues in this publication:

> We are very optimistic about the potentialities for the improvement of the educational experience, because we have found administrators, teachers, and children usually open and eager to collaborate when they are helped

to perceive new images of potentiality. Colleagues are hungry to achieve a deeper meaning from and a broader perspective on their teaching function, and are ready to provide emotional support to each other. Moreover, students are ready to be invited to share the responsibility for the adventure of learning if they are authentically and skillfully invited to do so.

The greatest stimulus to support high quality of learning activity derives from the sense of being invited into a meaningful classroom partnership. The gap between the generations must be coped with creatively in the classroom. To the degree that the adult teacher is ready to invite, listen to, and respond sensitively to the needs and influence attempts of her students, to that degree the young learners will be open and ready to receive and utilize the teaching efforts of the teacher. This respect and acceptance from the teacher is a basic ingredient of ego development and motivation to learn. And motivating the pupils to learn is basic in the teacher's motivation to improve her teaching performance. The response of the learners is the greatest support for innovative teaching. The sharing by the teacher of power and responsibility for classroom management and learning activity is the greatest support for mutual development. (1967a, Ch. 13)

Bob increasingly saw that achieving this type of supportive interdependence required some major changes in the approach to inservice training. These are discussed in Chapter 7. But we might conclude this section with a quotation from 1973 when Bob was describing the operation of his image of the humane school, wherein he describes his concept of the kinds of staff development process required to support innovative teaching. He writes:

Personal and professional development problems of students, parents, and teachers in relation to their participation in the humanizing school are seen not solely as matters of individual growth but also in the context of the group process, of team relationships, of total staff development. The clarification of role relationships; the establishment of supportive group norms; the gaining of skill in forming a range of functions needed in effective group operation; the development of a climate of openness, trust, and mutual support—these are learning goals which require involvement of the total team in the inservice education program.

A teaching team for the second grade group is composed of a senior teacher who serves as team coordinator, a second teacher, a student teacher, a paraprofessional teacher assistant, several volunteer parents, two sixth grade students, and a secretary. This team recognizes that it needs to build its skills for working together as well as in seeking ideas for learning activities which utilize the various team resources wisely. The inservice development plan for this team includes regular use of the consultants in

> the central office, time given for interpersonal growth of the team and for assessment of progress toward team goals, and periodic development sessions where outside resources are brought in to help with particular problems or projects. (1973e, Ch. 3)

It was this concept of supportive team development which Bob helped to actualize in the development of the COPED project (Cooperative Project for Educational Development) and which resulted in a fuller development of the model in the recently completed project, Quest for Quality Education: Team Building for Professional and Organizational Development. Although Bob did not live to see the completion of this project, his concepts and association were a major source of stimulation and support.

We will explore Bob's personal role as a source of innovation and a support for innovative risk-taking in Chapter 8.

VII

Professional Development and Support in the Humane School

As a professional educator who worked with experienced teachers in both university and school settings, Bob Fox was very much involved in inservice education. And, as with other things in his personal and professional life, the value of humaneness pervaded his approach to the continuing professional development of teachers. For example, he believed that teachers themselves ought to be involved in diagnosing their professional development needs and then take part in the planning of their inservice education. Furthermore, he continually stressed the importance of colleagues and others both as supporters of one's risk taking in trying out new ideas and as resources for additional new learnings.

In this chapter we shall discuss Bob's work in the professional development area in terms of five themes. It is clear that as Bob worked with teachers he viewed them as whole persons capable of making decisions about their own lives and of helping others with new learnings.

Theme No. 1: *Involving the Individual in the Diagnosis and Planning of His/Her Own Professional Development*

In a speech at the University of Illinois in February, 1966 to the National Conference on Educational Change, Bob Fox pointed out:

> . . . There are now available an increasing number of alternative recommendations for change, educational innovations, curriculum packages, and technological resources. We expect the practitioner in education not only to keep informed about this wide range of alternatives and to have some criteria for deciding about which are likely candidates for adoption, but to relate these innovations to the pressing needs of the educational situation as he knows it. Typically, however, the focus at the school level is on what is to be changed and on the innovation to be introduced, with teachers as a target, rather than on a process of problem-solving.

> The driving force for educational change is seen as coming from the outside. Little attention has been given to the knowledges, skills, strategies, and processes involved in teachers and school staffs diagnosing the actual need for change, identifying and selecting or creating a variety of alternative approaches, developing strategies for the trial of one or more approaches, gathering data during the process of change, modifying and adapting the change plan in view of experience, using both in-school and out-of-school resources wisely, assessing the consequences of the change efforts and sharing the results of such efforts with others within the profession.

This quote reveals Bob's position on individual practitioner involvement, but he went further to provide ways of bringing about such involvement. For example, he often used a single session or workshop to combine diagnosis and goal setting. All the participants, usually the total staff of a school, would be asked to engage in an individual fantasy period in which they were to pretend that they were strangers who had come to observe themselves on the job one year in the future. They were to describe all the things going on—actions of the persons, activities going on, and so forth—that would most please them as examples of "outstanding professional competence." Individuals would then share their fantasies with two or three others who would help them make details more concrete and proceed to convert certain events in the fantasies into specific change goals. Following this, each participant would be helped to do a "force-field analysis" of all the forces supporting movement toward a given goal and of all the forces blocking or inhibiting such movement. The final step was to look for commonalities in the goals so that the individuals with the same professional development interests could be grouped together. In short, through the use of fantasy to create "images of potentiality" individual staff members were helped to create meaningful professional development goals.

Two other examples of involving individuals in planning for their own professional development are: (1) the use of part of the practitioner's annual evaluation conference to develop a personal professional growth plan and win commitments to it from the administrator, and (2) the establishment of an inservice education committee to assist in diagnosis and planning of professional development activities. This latter is perhaps more suited to a larger school system in which procedures must be spelled out, such as arrangements for outside consultant help. In Bob's view such a committee "should be cross-level, with representatives from teachers, principals, central office, students, and parents.

It should be noted that Bob did not believe that the practitioner should be the *sole* determiner of his or her development needs. He understood that outside resources had insights that local practitioners might not have. But he correctly perceived that engaging the individual in the process of articulating needs was a major way of obtaining commitment to growth efforts.

Theme No. 2: *Encouraging a Team Approach, Rather Than Individual Approach, to Professional Development*

In a chapter in Rubin's *Improving In-Service Education*, Bob wrote:

> A team, rather than an individual, is recommended (for in-service training programs) so that there may be several lines of communication between the persons and groups actually engaged in problem-solving activities and those responsible for supporting such activities with the necessary in-service education (1971a, p. 167)

He believed that a variety of groupings were suitable targets for professional development efforts and suggested the following:

1. *Teaching teams* (two or more persons responsible for the conduct of learning activities for a specific group of students; included may be teachers, paraprofessionals, student teachers or interns, volunteers)
2. *Special task force groups* (teams created to work on specific problems, or individuals associated to support each other in the pursuit of common interests)
3. *School building staffs* (including building administrators, teachers, special teachers, and service personnel)
4. *Vertical teams* (selected representation from central administration, local building administration, teachers, pupils)
5. *Cross-sectional teams* (elementary teachers, secondary teachers, parents, students, administrators, supervisors)
6. *Groups serving continuing functions within the structure* (administrative councils, research and development committees, curriculum councils) (1971a, p. 141)

Bob Fox was very much aware of the power of groups both in terms of influence on members, and in providing support for member actions. He also understood that most professional activity is social rather than solitary. Therefore, he believed that the team approach to professional development provided opportunities for interpersonal and group process learnings, as well as other educational-task learnings. For example, in the 1966 speech to the National Conference on Educational Change, he suggested that one of the objectives of inservice education ought to be:

> *To become sensitive to the dynamics of working relationships with colleagues and to be able to contribute to the improvement of such relationships.* Much of the innovation and change in education is dependent upon group processes. How a person is perceived by his peers affects the way in which his contributions to the solution of problems on which the group is working are received. . . . Sensitivity to one's own pattern of relating to

> others and better understanding of dynamics of group interrelationships will contribute to productive efforts.

Bob was aware, however, that sensitivity to and understanding of interpersonal relationships did not happen by chance. Provision had to be made for learnings in these areas. He cites as an example a teaching team in an elementary school that directed its work

> . . . along two lines: one, to build its skills in working together; two, to seek ideas for organizing learning activities that utilize wisely the various resources represented in the team. The in-service development plan for this team includes the regular use of a consultant from the central office, time given for interpersonal growth of the team and for assessing progress toward team goals, and periodic development sessions where outside resources are brought in to help with particular problems or projects. (1971a, pp. 145-46)

Theme No. 3: *Providing Broad-Based Support for Professional Growth and Innovativeness*

Bob was extremely supportive of group change efforts and individual risk taking in the areas of personal and professional growth. He knew the anxieties people experienced and the real efforts involved in changing old habits. Therefore he was much committed to creating support mechanisms for individuals or teams attempting to implement new learnings. On many occasions he spoke to the need for active support of practitioners:

> Supporting the teacher or the staff in their problem-solving efforts, standing behind the "direct worker, are the principal, the parent, the superintendent, and the school board member. . . . Sensitivity to and identification of the needs of the teacher should be developed. Skill in promoting the (shared) problem-solving approach, in being facilitative rather than judgmental, being familiar with the wide range of educational innovations available as resources—these are necessary and useful objectives for the inservice growth of persons in such supporting roles. (at University of Illinois, 1966)

In short, Bob saw growth-encouraging support as one of the professional obligations of those in supervisory roles. He saw the teacher's supervisor as

> . . . a key person in supporting the teacher in his efforts to initiate changes as a result of his learning. . . . [The supervisor] provides interested and sympathetic follow-up, additional resources, suggestions for modification or adaptation of plans that are not working and ideas regarding next steps. (1971a, p. 151)

Not only the supervisor, but also one's colleagues needed to be supportive of professional growth efforts, in Bob's view. He understood that peer group

norms could be either facilitative or inhibiting of initiative-taking, experimentation, and innovation. For example, norms that encouraged staff members to share new ideas and practices with each other were seen as facilitative.

Bob's notion of support was active rather than passive. That is, it was not enough to back a practitioner from the sidelines—to respond encouragingly from a supervisory or peripheral position. Rather, if one were a colleague, he or she was to share new ideas with others. If one were a parent, he or she was encouraged to take part in dialogues and planning sessions on professional development. If one were a supervisor, he or she was to link the practitioner to outside resources—such as with teachers from other schools who were involved in similar change efforts and with university or state agency based specialists. A supervisor was also to set up structures—such as released time, workshops, temporary systems—to encourage change and growth.

Timing of support was also important to Bob. Not only did he encourage support of initial risk taking, but also follow-up support as a way of stabilizing changes made. Both as an administrator and as a researcher, Bob Fox demonstrated throughout his career much active commitment to creating and studying growth and change supporting structures and practices.

Theme No. 4: *Creating New Models for Inservice—Utilizing Both Different Organizational Forms and Learning Settings*

In one of his last publications, Bob Fox and a colleague, Don Griffin, suggested a new model for inservice—one that departs considerably from returning to university classes in summer or taking extension courses during the school year. It is what they call the Interinstitutional Model. Basically the interinstitutional model is a problem-focused workshop involving teams of teachers and administrators with a variety of outside resources. Bob and Don Griffin describe it thus:

> School districts select teams of teachers and administrators who work together on a problem of their choosing. The problem is identified before the workshop begins, and has priority for the total school staff or district. During . . . 16 four-hour, once-a-week sessions the teams work on their problems, assisted by staff members from the various universities (in the area), the state department of education, and the intermediate school district. . . .
>
> University, State Department of Education, and intermediate school district resources are utilized in a new way. The staff members are seen as a link with the resources of the researcher and the specialist. The retrieval of appropriate knowledge, and assistance with its interpretation and utilization are highly important services needed by a local school team intensively engaged in problem-solving activity. The opportunity for continuing association among the varied institutions over a period of years pays additional dividends in the building of relationships of mutual trust and collaboration.

> The opportunity for college staff members to become intimately involved with problem-solving activities in local school settings provides a reality-testing of their conceptual and process resources. . . .
>
> Management of the workshop is collaborative among the several universities, the State Department of Education, and the intermediate school district. (March 1974)

Less elaborate than the interinstitutional model are Bob's ideas for a "confrontation and search laboratory," clinic sessions with teachers from other systems, and membership on an "inside-outside team" responsible for developing change strategies for the school or school system. The confrontation and search laboratory is a two-phase, professional development process. During the first phase a group of students, parents, teachers, and an administrator prepare a series of taped "confrontations," or critical situations with which teachers must cope. During the second phase, which is an inservice workshop, each teacher is given an opportunity to react to each confrontation, to prepare a response and compare it with those of colleagues, to get consultant help, and to read selected material relevant to each confrontation.

The second idea, clinic sessions with teachers from other systems, provides opportunities for those working on similar projects to share ideas and gain consultant help. As Bob points out,

> It appears that most teachers are freer to share the problems and obstacles they face in carrying through their change efforts and in receiving help if the persons involved are not directly connected with their day-to-day working environment. (1971a, p. 163)

For a step-by-step description of a sharing session see Theme 4 of Chapter 6. Actually, that entire chapter can serve as a guide to the implementation of an innovation-sharing or "exchange of practices" project.

The third idea, membership on an "inside-outside team," involves the assignment of teachers as team members to cooperative, school district, and university research or change projects operating at the school-building level. Teacher members of such teams have opportunities to expand their perspectives and experience a different form of professional development.

As an educator interested in both the professional growth of teachers and in educational change, Bob Fox sought to link action research and inservice education. The accompanying diagram was developed by Bob to show an inservice program with an action-research orientation. (1966b, p. 30) "In the center of the diagram is the teacher or school system team focusing on improvement of the classroom learning activity. Surrounding the teacher are described a variety of action-research skills and activities which are likely to be used in the problem-solving efforts." On the outside ring are the "wide assortment of in-service training events or activities" that can be used to develop the action-research skills needed.

This synthesis of Bob Fox's work on the professional development of teachers and administrators through inservice education illustrates his capacity to attend to both the personal concerns of individuals and the larger scale problems of self-renewal in organizations. His approach to inservice education was consistently democratic and innovative, and governed, as we have seen, by the values of humaneness.

Inservice Education
with an
Action—Research Orientation
School Buildings Faculty Meetings focused on professional problems
Pre-School Workshop
Principal-Teacher Consultation
Summer Work Session
Teacher Consultation with university-based resource person
ACTION — RESEARCH SKILLS AND ACTIVITIES
Identifying needs for change
Membership on an inside-ou'side team responsible for developing change strategies for school or school system (R&D teams)
Sharing results with others
Designing action-research projects
School System temporary structure for support of a particular action-research project (i.e., trial of particular innovation
Gaining support from Colleagues
Working with outside resource people
THE TEACHER
The Classroom Learning Activity
THE SCHOOL or SYSTEM TEAM
Deriving implications for learning from research findings
Diagnosing the learning climate
The College Class
Increasing interpersonal sensitivity to authority figures, peers, and students
Serving as a member of a school building or school system change-agent team
Curriculum Materials Center for retrieval of basic research, innovations, tools
Sensitivity Training Laboratory
Utilizing the resources of school system personnel
Learning about innovations developed by other teachers or by national projects
Internship with other projects (curriculum projects, university-based development or research activities on released time
Clinic Sessions with teachers from other systems
Sessions for the sharing of practices

VIII

The Continuity of a Life

A great teacher's life is perhaps most importantly a stimulus and support for the continuity of learning of those who have been students.

As we noted in the preceding chapters, Bob put great emphasis on teaching ... modeling for and supporting learners as they work through the personal implications of their learning and take the risks of trying out in reality the ideas and demonstrations of the classroom.

We asked a sample of Bob's former students to help us understand this important question of continuity which so interested Bob as a professional educator. What kind of impact had Bob provided? What continuity did he still have in their lives? Could they identify ways in which his influence was still supportive in their lives?

Below we have excerpted some of the responses, then we have tried to summarize, in a dialogue between the two of us, our reflections on these quotes and on the ways Bob is continuing to influence the two of us.

A Sample of Reflections from Former Students

As we read the reflections they seemed to fall into three clusters. One set of observations emphasized the importance of Bob as a model to be emulated; another cluster focused on the kind of impact which Bob has had and was continuing to have; and a third cluster focused on learnings from Bob that are still being applied. Here are typical quotes from each of these clusters.

Providing a Model

> He was one of the two or three great teachers who have influenced my life—primarily in the model he presented—his commitment to people as individuals, ability to ask correct questions, and depth of personal humanity.
>
> He showed how never to be a stuffed shirt.
>
> He demonstrated a humble spirit able to laugh at himself.

He showed you can find a best way rather than having your own way.

He proved you can be both a man of thought and action, a dreamer as well as a doer.

He showed me it's safe to have genuine feelings, to show them.

He demonstrated a quality of courage to support his convictions.

You could look at him in action and know that he found life rewarding and know that the world was a better place than it appeared when viewed by weary eyes.

He showed me how to lead without dominating, support without flattering, and to offer criticism in appropriate ways.

Bob seemed to be able to achieve a personal authenticity that most of us seek but are unable to reach.

Bob showed you can be innovative yet realistic, stimulating but modest.

He showed how in a low-key manner you can get to the heart of the facts and arrive at decisions and actions.

He provided me with, through his own behavior, a model of the humane educator and person.

His Impact on Me

The influence Bob had on me and others constitutes solid proof that even in this pragmatic and cynical era there is indeed a life after death. The courage and understanding that Bob offered remain significant factors in my willingness to do the best I can in this profession. His presence is missed but not really gone from me.

Any contributions I may have made in education are substantially a result of his influence.

I am a better person and a more effective school administrator because I knew and worked with Bob Fox.

Because he was open and humble I was able to assimilate and absorb his wisdom.

In his company, and since then, you were reminded that it was indeed worthwhile to try once more to seek another path to the goal, to recognize and identify the best in people.

Even after long periods of time between one meeting and another Bob was present, and it was possible to immediately re-establish a close relationship.

During several personal tragedies Dr. Fox's values and inspiration have been a tremendous help to me.

Bob's willingness to treat me and others as individuals is the most important legacy he leaves to me.

Learnings from Bob Fox I'm Still Applying

He showed me how to make plans, but still be open to change.

I learned from him that students can be partners who can share in the rewards.

He taught me the importance of process, which guides my actions still as an administrator.

Bob gave meaning to me of many principles of teaching, learning, and living which are found in the writings of humanistic education.

His love of children and understanding of their needs and of group influences created a framework of concepts in me which has been beneficial in my classroom teaching and my responsibilities as a principal.

He taught it is possible to work within a large bureaucratic educational agency and still be humane and effective.

Bob taught me that if a helper can, at least initially, view the client and setting less with change-intentions and more with intentions to nonevaluatively understand, this will move the client toward increased rationality, mutual respect, and greater readiness to change. I feel deeply indebted to Bob for his significant contributions to my learning of what I have come to consider the most universally true, action-oriented proposition.

Our Summary Dialogue

These reflections of former students and colleagues are indeed impressive evidence of a continuity of a life well lived, of the meaningful extension through time of the influence of a great teacher-colleague-friend.

Because each of us, as we read these comments, has a personal interest in our own continuity through the lives of others, we can learn much by reflecting on the insights these comments can give us into some of the values, attitudes, and behaviors of this teacher which have resulted in such significant continuing impact on the lives of others, and on the lives of those whom they are influencing in turn.

The two of us, stimulated by these appreciations, and by our own associations with Bob, turned on the tape recorder and had the following dialogue as we attempted to "summarize Bob for us":

Ron: We've been reviewing the variety of comments, observations, reflections, and statements of influence that various colleagues and former students have shared with us as their perceptions of the meaning of Bob, and this has triggered us to not only react to their reflections but to add some of our own, and I guess the one fact that comes out most frequently in various ways is the one about Bob as a model for others—a model of personal style, a model of caring, and a model of coping with the problems of educational change and frustration.

Pat: Yes, what seems to run through several of these is Bob's ability to bring personal quality to a role. The letters are from people who experienced him in a variety of roles but always as friends, and I think the recurring theme is: "Here is a person who, whether as administrator or teacher, had some authentic human qualities to serve as a model, someone to emulate, someone, not exactly to pattern after in the sense of imitating, but as someone who could inspire." I know as I reflect on my own experiences with Bob, I try to use the approach he did with himself, that is, for each person to learn how to use themselves, their own resources, and to express their role with others in a humane and authentic way.

Ron: One of the meanings of Bob which they talked about is consistency—the consistency between his personal life and behavior patterns and his professional role performance. I have the impression, for example, that as I met with Bob in many different situations and with many different kinds of groups of people, that whether he was in his family context, or school administrative context, or a research team context, or a church member role, or a citizen concerned about social problems, there was a high consistency of personal values and quality of approach to problem solving and shared decision making.

Pat: Yes, I think that may be one key to explain those comments, because you could always know that you had Bob as a sincere acting and reflective person in the variety of roles that you've mentioned, and that could explain those feelings about consistency that a number of people comment on.

Ron: I was impressed with the insight that I think someone expressed about Bob as a *change agent* who exemplified a certain principle of approach to change agentry. I'm sure that many will even tend to reject the notion of Bob as a change agent because they tend to see such a tender, humble, nonassertive, listening approach. But I was very impressed with the statement that for someone Bob was the model of change agentry in his ability to approach the influence or change situation with learners and clients with such an open-minded kind of inquiry and diagnostic interest posture, that there was really an opening up to him and an eagerness and readiness to explore change, which would have been less true if resistance had been activated by a more advocative change posture.

Pat: Yes, I think Bob grasped that in terms of organizational as well as individual change. Change starts with the willingness of the client or the person seeking help, the person who's trying to improve, with the willingness and effort of that person or that group of people to initiate and commit to a change effort, and I think his stance and his way of relating really encouraged people to do their own problem solving and beyond that, to make their commitment to try out something different. In effect, he knew how to support change efforts in others.

Ron: I guess one of the things I always empathized with a great deal in Bob's orientation was his commitment to a trust posture rather than to start from some kind of mistrust caution. It seems to me that Bob's trust in the essential goodness and readiness, and his concern of others for solving problems was a major stimulant for trusting responses. A different approach by Bob could have very well activated in others a much more cautious or mistrusting response of resistance to learning and change.

Pat: I agree. I think his trusting posture brought out in others the whole sense of "Maybe I can do something" or "Maybe we can improve this." You're right when you said it served as a stimulus. It was an enabling thing, for unlocking people into being able to use their own resources.

Ron: Those that have commented on Bob as a dreamer or an optimist have also added the phrase "but practical." He was very practical because he stimulated and encouraged learning and growth in others.

Pat: Which I think has to do with this energizing of confidence and self-initiative and risk taking which others report and I felt.

Ron: Everybody seemed to see Bob as full of energy and enthusiasm and as being able, at any time of the day, to respond with interest. I think he had that resource of energy because he wasn't using up his energy on the enervating distrust kinds of issues.

Pat: I think that's true, and I think another thing that fits into that energy resource that we experienced from him was that he knew how to get in touch with and utilize the here and now. I think he was a master at making a decision among alternatives in a here-and-now situation as to what was important and what could be dealt with, and after having made that decision then he could put his energy to it and not waste energy worrying about or conveying that he had distrusting doubts, ambivalences, or other competing priorities.

Ron: I certainly have always seen Bob as tremendously able to be concerned about and to project alternatives, but on the other hand not to get ambivalent about a multiplicity of alternatives to agonize about.

Pat: And he would help a person to consider those alternatives and proceed on their own decision making around what was feasible and attractive to them.

Ron: I think another aspect of Bob's here-and-nowness was manifest many times as he functioned as a member of a team, whether working on curriculum projects or on research planning or whatever. He was the sensitive reality tester of whether we were on our agenda or developing an agenda. He often got to the board "to get it written down" so we'd all see it together and have consensus about what we were doing.

Pat: And he made sure that everyone had made an input, checking out whether we were ready to move on. As a team member I think my own experience with him was that he was the person who kept things moving but made sure that everyone of us participated in the sense of giving what we had to share.

Ron: I think anybody observing would have seen Bob fulfilling many of what we would agree were leadership roles, and others completely accepting and delegating to Bob those kinds of leadership initiatives, but without any sense that there was a leader giving directions.

Pat: That's right. I think he exemplified facilitative leadership as opposed to directive leadership. He really did know how to keep things moving, yet he helped everyone participate.

Ron: He certainly was a master of synthesizing the input of a variety of people and letting everybody not only feel that they'd been heard and were integrated into things, but coming up with emergent content, ideas, conclusions, and generalizations which did represent a creative synthesis rather than just a kind of rote summarizing of what people said.

Pat: That's right. It was a vision of a coherent organized way of looking at what had been dealt with—as you say, truly a synthesis function rather than merely a recording function.

Ron: Bob was always, in such teamwork, ready to be reflective in the sense of looking at process, although he was a tremendously task-oriented person in getting work done, getting problems solved. He was at the same time highly sensitive to the necessity and importance of paying attention to process as basically supportive of task work.

Pat: Yes, all of us who worked with him experienced that sensitivity to situation and what people were trying to deal with, but always with the perspective that we had a job to do, and we were trying to work together for shared goals. His ability to mobilize and to really deduce the things that we'd come together to do showed up again and again.

Ron: I think another aspect of Bob's productivity was his sensitivity to when it was time to break into subgroups or time for pairs to go off and produce, or to meet next week and bring things back, with a high trust posture that people will go and do work and will be committed and will feel the need to bring in their share.

Pat: Yes, which goes back again to what many people have referred to as his ability, as a model, to demonstrate in his unique way a kind of leadership role plus person role. He was definitely a self-actualized person working effectively with others and we experienced his creative integration of self and role as a model for a unique type of leadership—as a researcher, or as a teacher or administrator.

Ron: In the views reflected by words like "consistency" and "synthesizing" and "dreamer but practical," there's another dimension in which I think of Bob as a "linker." On the one hand he was tremendously involved in and sensitive to children and where they were and what their needs were, but on the other hand he was able to identify with the problems and concerns of teachers, and parents, and also he was able to step up the ladder, if you will, and be identified with the institution, the administrator, or the organization, and to keep those three or four foci all in balance and all to be respected, concerned about, and interacted with. He wasn't over-identified with the students against the teachers, or with teachers vis a vis students, or with administrators and their rights and responsibilities. He was seeing that the whole team always had to be considered, respected, listened to, and involved in mutual dialogue.

Pat: Bob proved he could grasp and demonstrate in his life the whole idea of reciprocity in all relationships. Children could gain from parents but they also had something to offer parents or teachers, and I think those of us who have experienced him as a student realize that we were not just receiving from him but we were seen as co-learners with him. I don't think Bob could get into a situation of a them-us, we're right, you're wrong, thing without changing it. He knew the value of face-to-face interaction and he could bring all parties together so they could contribute and listen.

Ron: In most interaction it seems to me Bob felt he could contribute to more than one objective. As an administrator, leading a staff and doing a good job of pushing along an agenda for doing business, he was also at the same time seeing the way in which the items were discussed and handled as being a professional development opportunity to those who were engaged in this. He saw most situations as both "doing business" and "getting growth."

Pat: Yes, he certainly had a sense of multiple possibilities as opposed to a tunnel vision approach to things.

Ron: And a small item on the agenda could have a lot of interesting potential implications in terms of educational philosophy, or potential for involvement for others, or new inquiry projects.

Pat: I think that goes back again to his ability to use his here-and-now for a number of possibilities.

Ron: He certainly was a great enthusiast for organizing and using resources, whether it was organizing a resource library or bringing in parents as resource people, or getting somebody from the education faculty who had a certain kind of expertise to contribute. There was always a concern for getting the relevant resources mobilized and used.

Pat: This goes back to your point about his sense of the importance of linkage, and his ability to see possible linkages and to help people see them in their own situations.

Ron: I suppose a lot of these dimensions we've been talking about are really dimensions of a definition of humaneness.

Pat: Yes, I think we have in Bob's effect on each of us the action of, and the being of, a humane person who lived what he believed.

Ron: But his humaneness certainly had a tough-mindedness concern about getting things done, and about influencing establishments as well as children.

Pat: Yes. I think we need to speak of his gentleness and sensitivity and also of his strength and tenacity.

Ron: That's right, he didn't draw back from going down to the dean's office with a concern for some change that was needed.

Pat: True, and he didn't draw back from helping one confront that something had to be done. His helping was the type that would stimulate you to do something instead of postponing action.

Ron: We've emphasized Bob's great skill of using the here-and-now fully, but we need to remember that he helped to develop the concept of "images of potentiality" and the methods of goal setting and long range planning by taking trips into the future. Bob's here-and-now was grounded in an awareness of the resource accumulations of the past, the needs, possibilities, and feasibilities of the present, and the exciting images of a valued future.

Pat: Bob is certainly a major resource of my past, a very significant guide of here-and-now decisions, and a source of many future images of what humane education should be like and could be like.

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